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ABSTRACT

This study deals with interuniversity mobility. Part I examines the harmonization of action taken to encourage mobility, the removal of legislative and statutory obstacles to mobility, the simplification of university staff regulations and careers, and incentives to mobility. Part II describes the ideas and activities of UNESCO, the Council of Europe and the European Communities with regard to university cooperation and the mobility of teachers and research workers. Part III examines national policies and reveals the role and influence of many elements, all of which combine to give the theme of mobility a different character and flavor in each country. Appendices cover European status for staff in higher education and research, UNESCO's activities, recommendations concerning the status of teachers, and the interim progress report of 1971 for the Royal Society. (MJM)

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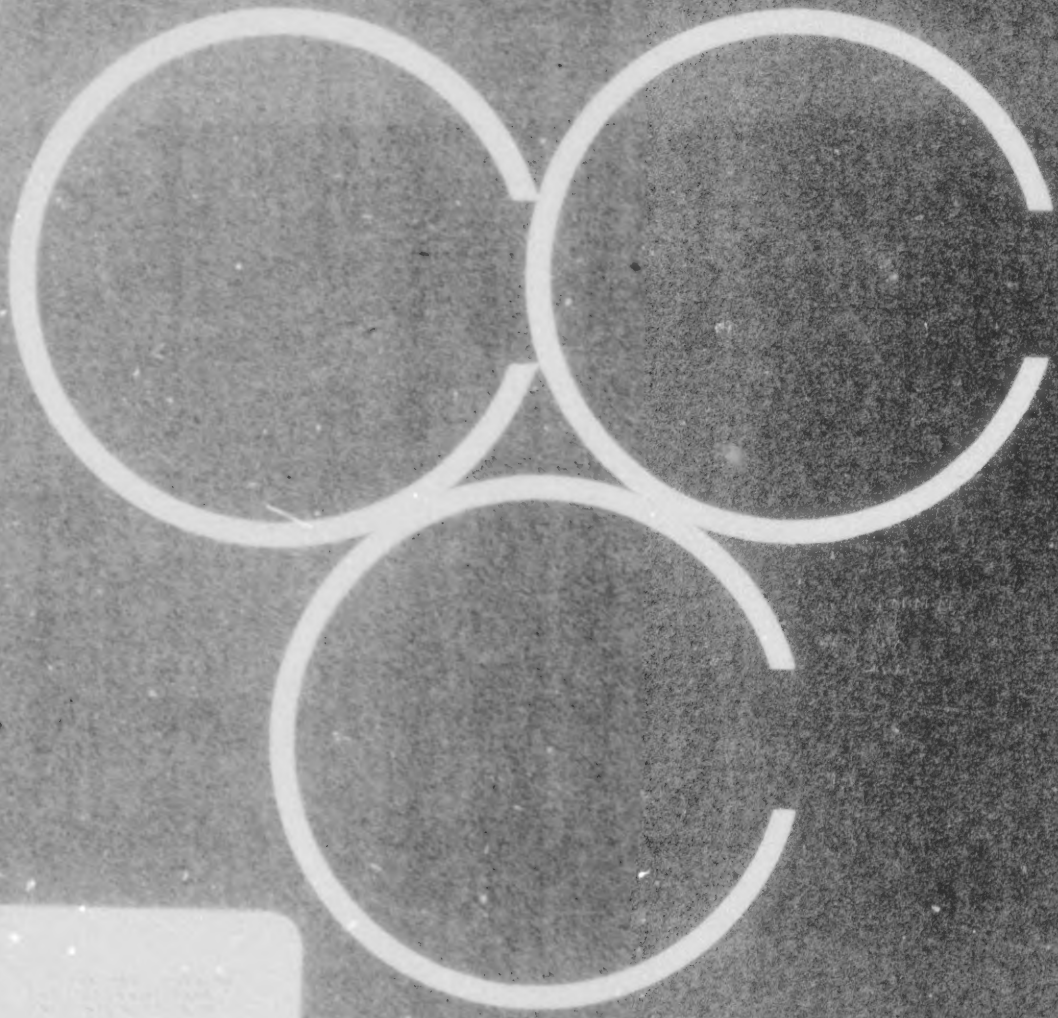

MOBILITY OF UNIVERSITY STAFF

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Council for Cultural Co-operation
Council of Europe
Strasbourg
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The Council for Cultural Co-operation was set up by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe on 1 January 1962 to draw up proposals for the cultural policy of the Council of Europe, to co-ordinate and give effect to the overall cultural programme of the organisation and to allocate the resources of the Cultural Fund. It is assisted by three permanent committees of senior officials : for higher education and research, for general and technical education and for out-of-school education. All the member governments of the Council of Europe, together with Greece, Finland, Spain and the Holy See are represented on these bodies[1].

In educational matters, the aim of the Council for Cultural Co-operation (C.C.C.) is to help to create conditions in which the right educational opportunities are available to young Europeans whatever their background or level of academic accomplishment, and to facilitate their adjustment to changing political and social conditions. This entails in particular a greater rationalisation of the complex educational process. Attention is paid to all influences bearing on the acquisition of knowledge, from home television to advanced research ; from the organisation of youth centres to the improvement of teacher training. The countries concerned will thereby be able to benefit from the experience of their neighbours in the planning and reform of structures, curricula and methods in all branches of education.

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Some of the volumes in this series have been published in French by Armand Colin of Paris and in English by Harraps of London.

These works are being supplemented by a series of "companion volumes" of a more specialised nature to which the present study belongs.

General Editor :

The Director of Education and of Cultural and Scientific Affairs, Council of Europe, Strasbourg (France)

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1. For complete list, see back of cover.

1. The first part entitled "Towards a concerted policy of mobility" and the second part concerning the activities of the international organisations as well as the section on France have been drafted by Henry LESGUILLONS. The other national sections in the third part have been written by members of the Association Europe Université.

2. We should like to express our thanks to all those who have through their critical comments and their help contributed to bringing out this study:

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3. The original plan for the study was based on the chronological order of the research work as it had been carried out:

- Presentation of the activities of the international organisations
- Analysis of the policies adopted by member states
- Finally a series of proposals based on the previous work.

The logical order of the work does, however, not necessarily correspond to what is expected by the reader. It seems therefore useful to change the method of presentation when publishing the study. The proposals which constitute the main justification for the study will be found in the first part (Towards a concerted policy of mobility). The analytical work which served as a basis for these proposals will be described in the following 2 parts (Part II - Activities of the international organisations - and Part III - National policies). A number of documents which may be of some use for our purpose are published in an appendix.

PART I

TOWARDS A CONCERTED POLICY OF MOBILITY

No systematic study exists in Europe on the university situation. So far no in-depth research has been conducted into the nature and role of teachers. It is as though everything which happens in this field could be taken for granted. Individual systems of recruitment and organisation of the teaching career have been created in each of our countries and faculties. This paper sets out to tackle part of the problem from the point of view of mobility.

The question of the mobility of teachers raises two problems. There is, firstly, mobility between the teaching function and other functions in society, which is an inter-sectorial mobility; and secondly, there is geographical mobility, which means inter-university mobility. Any attempt to draw a rigid dividing line between these two aspects of mobility would be artificial.

This being so, the present study deals only with inter-university mobility. In narrowing down our subject in this way, however, we must not overlook the fact that mobility forms a complex whole. Above all, it must not be forgotten that the mobility of human beings is not an end in itself. Where universities in particular are concerned, mobility will often be of real interest only if it fits into the wider process of co-operation between the universities and between them and other elements of society.

The development of mobility is bound up with an infinite number of factors.

The most important ones have been enumerated in recent studies; proposals for action have been formulated by various public authorities.

They are sufficiently well known for us to take some liberties with regard to them.

Our conclusions, therefore, make no claim either to ignore or to override the conclusions and recommendations formulated by national and international institutions.

In this part, however, we shall try to propose a "concerted policy of mobility" based precisely on what has already been accomplished, linking the theme of mobility closely with current structural reforms and developments.

Accordingly, we shall examine in turn:

I THE HARMONISATION OF ACTION TAKEN TO ENCOURAGE MOBILITY

II THE REMOVAL OF LEGISLATIVE AND STATUTORY OBSTACLES TO MOBILITY

III THE SIMPLIFICATION OF UNIVERSITY STAFF REGULATIONS AND CAREERS

IV INCENTIVES TO MOBILITY

I THE HARMONISATION OF ACTION TAKEN TO ENCOURAGE MOBILITY

The report of the Council of Europe Auditors on the accounts of the Cultural Fund for 1970 draws attention to the development of competing activities in Europe in the cultural and educational fields:

> "A comparison of the programme and publications of the CCC with those of UNESCO, OECD (CERI) and the EEC shows that there is a serious danger of duplication of activities in the fields of culture and education."

The report goes on to say:

> "In order to avoid unnecessary duplication, which would inevitably lead to a waste of the financial resources of member States, no matter which body had the use of them, the CCC should take the initiative of ensuring pragmatic co-ordination as a prelude to true co-operation. All important projects should be distributed among the various organisations (CCC, OECD, EEC and UNESCO) in such a way that one of them would have sole responsibility for a complete study. If a project is divided up and its implementation entrusted to several organisations duplication cannot be entirely avoided."

This analysis and the conditions proposed are of especially acute importance in the context of our present study. In the last two years the subject of the mobility of teachers and research workers has given rise to an extraordinary wealth of studies and even practical projects (1), particularly on the part of the international organisations concerned.

Even so, these are the best known and most widespread activities, because they are multilateral. The bilateral action taken by States through the medium of cultural, scientific and technical co-operation agreements must also be considered (2).

The agreements concluded between universities in various countries on exchanges of teaching staff, or co-operation agreements which help to promote teacher, research worker and student mobility, are even less well known because they are not published in a systematic, centralised way or readily accessible. However, the fragmentary information which has reached us suggests that these agreements are by no means negligible, and are even significantly on the increase as the universities become more independent in the international sphere.

There are many instruments of mobility. One of the basic problems is to perfect their use. The following problems need to be tackled systematically:

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(1) As regards studies, see UNESCO document SC/WS/92 on the intra-European mobility of scientific workers, the work of the PREST (Politique de Recherche Scientifique et Technique - Scientific and Technical Research Policy) group under the responsibility of the European Communities and the present study undertaken at the request of the Council of Europe. As regards practical projects for making mobility more effective, we would mention the creation by UNESCO of a European Centre for Higher Education, the EEC scheme for a European Centre for the development of education and the CCC proposals for developing university co-operation and mobility. For a detailed account of all these questions, see Part II - Activities of the international organisations.

(2) See Part III - National policies. Chapter I - International agreements.

1. The strengthening of co-operation between the international organisations whose activities cover the cultural, educational and research fields in Europe

This need was already emphasised in the report of the Council of Europe Auditors on the accounts of the Cultural Fund for 1970. It is clear that only through such co-operation can fullest advantage be taken of the means available to encourage greater mobility among teachers and research workers.

Everyone is aware, however, of the difficulties involved in intensifying such co-operation.

The institutions concerned have already made a real effort in this direction. We have noted, for instance, the practice now established in UNESCO, OECD, the Council of Europe and the European Communities of inviting observers from other institutions and even representatives of certain non-governmental organisations to attend their meetings. Exchanges of information through these meetings and by the ordinary methods of post and telephone have considerably increased. At present, therefore, each of these institutions is presumably kept informed of the broad outlines of the projects undertaken by the others.

But these practices are not in themselves sufficient to bring genuine co-operation about. As we have seen, they do not preclude the pursuit of competing schemes, entailing both waste and inefficiency in the aims pursued. Careful consideration should be given to finding ways and means of furthering co-operation between the international institutions, especially on the question of mobility. Over-simplified solutions must be rejected. There can of course be no question of entrusting the achievement of mobility to one organisation, the development of university co-operation to another and the subject of permanent education to yet a third. For obvious reasons, the question of mobility comes as much within the competence of the European Communities, for which it represents a promising means of achieving economic and social aims, as within that of the Council of Europe and UNESCO for which it represents an indispensable instrument of co-operation for promoting research and educational reform.

The theme of mobility thus offers a typical example of the need for co-operation between the different institutions, because in view of the specific functions of each international organisation there can be no question of this subject's being monopolised by any one of them. On the contrary each organisation, by virtue of the specific goal which it pursues, can contribute to a better understanding of a subject which is extremely complex because it touches on every aspect of economic, social, scientific, technical and cultural life. It is undeniable that the subject of mobility affects all the international organisations, just as it patently affects all countries, and indeed every member of the economic and social community.

What is therefore important in the general interest is that the international organisations should regularly try to decide on what subjects or problems they intend to prepare studies or practical action in accordance with their specific responsibilities and areas of competence.

Then, when common problems have been clarified, each organisation should explain what are its own particular interests in such research and what contribution it can make towards resolving the problem.

Lastly, insofar as the organisations concerned feel that a consensus may be reached among all or some of them, they should conclude an agreement setting out the way in which the project is to be implemented.

It is really up to the international organisations to demonstrate that co-operation is possible, starting with themselves: everyone stands to gain - the organisations, the States, the universities and individuals themselves.

2. Rationalisation of bilateral agreements concluded between countries

Even before any international organisations had been created, bilateral agreements between States helped to further cultural and scientific co-operation and to develop mobility. However, the gradual shifting of the problems of cultural and scientific co-operation into the sphere of the international organisations has not always been accompanied by a corresponding rationalisation of those bilateral agreements.

It is not our intention to criticise the principle of bilateral agreements as such. Some of them are rooted in, and justified by, historical and cultural traditions which deserve to be upheld. In other cases, bilateral undertakings may afford flexibility of action which would doubtless have been impossible under the more rigid system of multilateral arrangements. Bilateral agreements can thus settle the problems that arise between neighbouring States or enable meetings to be held and agreements to be concluded to supplement what is done on the international level, for political as well as scientific reasons. All this shows that bilateral undertakings have a practical raison d'être and are to be encouraged in certain situations.

But not in all situations: there are also cases where it is decided, after a meeting between heads of State or government, simply because it is customary to conclude - in addition to the political or economic agreements - a cultural agreement which appears to derive less from intellectual and scientific considerations than from sheer political expediency. Some of these agreements are concluded without their authors concerning themselves about the possible strengthening of the trends towards multilateral co-operation which are emerging within international organisations or the practical needs which might be expressed by universities, research centres and laboratories. Thus one is sometimes faced with the ludicrous situation - or at any rate one which cannot be taken seriously and is therefore a waste of time - that just because a cultural agreement has been concluded and must be implemented, a university is asked if it will accept a Bantu phonetics expert although that university is not specially interested in phonetic and linguistic problems but would be far more so in other subjects.

For the sake of intra-European mobility it would see desirable:

a. That an effort be made to bring the practice of bilateral agreements between European countries into line with a guided policy of intra-European mobility. Some States do precisely this in their co-operative relations with countries of the third world. Britain, in respect of the Commonwealth universities, and France in respect of the universities of the French-speaking African States and Madagascar, pursue a very coherent policy whereby cultural agreements stem from a certain conception of co-operation and development. Now that the States of Europe have decided to intensify their co-operation within the framework of the European Communities, the Council of Europe and UNESCO, cultural, scientific and technical co-operation agreements should be drawn up and implemented in order to reinforce these tendencies.

b. That universities, research centres and laboratories should be informed and even consulted more than at present about the contents of bilateral agreements which the governments propose to negotiate (Denmark offers an instructive example in this respect).

3. Following the pattern established in the United States, and depending on the international autonomy granted them in each country, the universities are developing agreements with university and even non-university research institutes in a way which can only be ascertained in an empirical, piecemeal fashion. It would be helpful if there existed an international institution to record and publish such agreements, so that information about them was readily and systematically available.

II THE REMOVAL OF LEGISLATIVE AND STATUTORY OBSTACLES TO MOBILITY

The monographs on national policies in Part III show that in recent years, particularly since the introduction of university reforms into national laws and regulations, some of the main obstacles to mobility have been gradually removed. This is especially the case as regards the condition of nationality. In Britain, Belgium, the Netherlands, the Federal Republic of Germany, Norway, Sweden and Finland, there is no nationality requirement for appointment to the teaching staff of universities. In France, as we have seen, teachers can no longer be disqualified on the grounds of nationality from taking up posts at various levels of the hierarchy. Of the countries studied, only Italy, Austria and Denmark still retain a nationality stipulation.

Conversely, there are now few countries (Austria, Finland and Denmark) which forbid their nationals to take up a permanent public post in a foreign country or even impose so heavy a penalty as loss of nationality for disobeying this rule (Austria).

The nationality requirement is on the way out. It should of course be completely eliminated, for it does not seem to serve any interest which ought legitimately to be protected. In fact, the nationality requirement protects nothing except national chauvinism to the detriment of proficiency.

On the other hand, closer attention must be paid to those national systems of law which can impose the penalty of loss of nationality on citizens who take up permanent public employment abroad; the countries concerned are afraid of being the main victims of the brain drain. This problem must not be treated lightly. No mobility policy should have the effect of depriving the smallest or least wealthy countries of the senior staff on whom their development depends. What can be stressed, however, is that prohibition and withdrawal of nationality are not necessarily the most effective measures for the countries concerned; rather, they should take positive measures to enable research workers and qualified teachers to obtain appropriate employment at home. In this respect the practice of establishing Chairs intuitu personae in certain Nordic countries in order to provide a counter-attraction to the brain drain seems far more effective.

The abolition of the legal nationality requirement for a teaching or research post in a university might nevertheless be devoid of all practical effect if other legislative and statutory obstacles were in fact to strengthen the monopoly enjoyed by nationals. This is the case when, for instance, the laws and regulations of a country make access to the teaching profession conditional on the holding of national diplomas.

From another point of view, the French order of 6 June 1969, which develops the system of associate teachers and is thus liberal in its purpose, nevertheless remains restrictive and protectionist since it specifies that associate staff may not exceed 5% of the budget establishment. These posts, moreover, are lacking in security since the associate teachers are appointed for two years only.

Other obstacles to mobility are laws and regulations which require teaching to be given exclusively in the national language; the over-strict enforcement of this language requirement seems to be motivated by nationalistic considerations rather than scientific ones. From our case studies we have learnt that in the Nordic countries and the Netherlands teaching may, for instance, be given in English. The University of Groningen in the Netherlands recently advertised a vacant teaching post in a French newspaper; it stated that the candidate appointed might teach in French, English or German, as he chose; he was merely asked to promise to learn Dutch once he had been appointed. This solution seems to us a sound one since it consists in utilising the teacher's ignorance of a foreign language in order to develop his future students' knowledge of his own language. A paradoxical method, perhaps, but one worth thinking about.

The mobility of university staff may also be hampered by the common law rules of countries relating to residence and work permits. It is of course in this field that various forms of discrimination, especially racial discrimination, are likely to emerge.

The case studies show that while the legal nationality requirement has been receding, there are still a multitude of laws and regulations which discriminate against foreigners. Any attempt to abolish all these forms of discrimination at a stroke, even by coercive measures, would be hopeless. The national barriers which sometimes serve to protect conservatism and chauvinism assume various forms which are not always readily apparent to those who have not themselves had the actual experience of moving to another country. Inasmuch as protectionist measures against foreigners are somewhat discredited today, they adapt to the changing situation and often hide behind measures which seem quite harmless or to be positively in the general interest.

It is therefore not enough to ensure that the nationality requirement is wholly abolished everywhere: a constant and careful watch must be kept in the future to ensure that the laws and regulations on education and the policing of foreigners are compatible with the goal of mobility which has been accepted by all the Ministers of Education of the Council of Europe's member States.

This brings us to the proposal made in Part II, Chapter II (Activities of the international organisations - the Council of Europe) that the Committee for Higher Education and Research should devote part of its future programmes to devising practical measures for implementing the terms of the recommendation adopted at its 11th meeting held on 8 - 12 March 1965, where we argue that in this event, the Committee should be assisted by a group of national experts responsible for keeping a systematic watch on laws and regulations and university circulars, instructions and rules relating to the mobility of teachers and research workers.

III THE SIMPLIFICATION OF UNIVERSITY STAFF REGULATIONS AND CAREERS

The monographs reveal the extraordinary complexity and endless variety of conditions of recruitment, career patterns and prospects of access to teaching posts as between the various European countries, and indeed often within a country.

The history of the development of teaching and research staff clearly shows that they evolved through successive strata, each new layer being created to solve new problems, often in a random way and without any overall conception. In the classical, liberal university of the 19th century, the structure of the teaching staff was extremely simple and was based mainly on the professors. In the last twenty years, education for the masses has led to a multiplicity of teachers of all kinds, with increasingly varied rights and duties.

It must be realised that any change in the status of teachers, as a direct result of the changes which society expects of the university (inter-disciplinarity, permanent education, replacement of individual work by team-work, desire for international co-operation) raises considerable difficulties, not only because of the vested interests of those teachers who have reached the top of the hierarchy but also because of the danger of negative, nervous reactions on the part of those who are on the bottom and middle rungs of the ladder and who are always likely to fear that rationalisation may make their existence even more precarious and their responsibilities even more numerous.

For both political and social reasons it is clear that any attempt to reconsider the conditions, duties and responsibilities of teachers and research workers in a general way, taking present and future problems into account, will be received with considerable reserve by all concerned, and it will be noted in passing that because those concerned are intellectuals, the influence they wield in the decision-making bodies of State and government, political movements and trade unions is out of all proportion to their numbers.

If the mobility of teachers and research workers in Europe is to be allowed to develop in depth - that is, if action is not to be confined to a few artificial or more or less marginal measures, then it must be clearly understood that such mobility entails a genuine simplification of university staff regulations and careers at both national and international level, based on the twin concepts of efficiency and democracy. Although the governments wishing to effect such a reform may be full of good intentions, they will encounter the fiercest resistance and find their plans rapidly thwarted unless two essential conditions are fulfilled:

1. The aims and methods of such reform must be indicated with maximum detail and clarity, by the use of the "White Paper" system, for instance.

2. Broadly based consultation must be arranged so that all those actively concerned in the development of education may discuss the plans before the political decisions are taken.

At present, mobility is hampered:

- by the negative consequences of a more and more elaborate university hierarchy; an active policy must therefore be pursued to remove all unnecessary vertical barriers;

- by an unduly monolithic structure which hinders access to the teaching and research professions, particularly when the staff become civil servants on appointment; a policy of diversified recruitment is therefore needed;

- by the excessive disparities in university careers as between one country and another; the remedy here is a policy of career harmonisation. This might be the purpose of a model text defining the status of the European teacher and research worker.

Let us examine each of these three points in turn:

1. Removal of unnecessary vertical barriers

We are aware that this is a thorny problem and that our proposal is likely to provoke lively reactions. The suggestion should be considered largely in terms of the goal of mobility on which it is based; and it is pointed out that while the following considerations are closely linked with the theme of mobility, they are necessarily broader in scope and touch on a larger number of questions.

First, why discuss the subject of hierarchy in a study on mobility? For the simple reason that we cannot avoid it. As experience shows and the monographs largely confirm, it is the teachers and research workers who have reached the top of the ladder who encounter the fewest formal obstacles to mobility. Enjoying as they do all the prerogatives granted to professors or research directors, it is usually very easy for them to arrange a short, medium or long stay abroad. We often see senior teaching staff and research workers going off to international conferences, courses lasting a few weeks or up to a year, meetings, seminars and lectures. The situation becomes more and more different as one moves down the ladder. The monographs show that at certain levels mobility is not only not encouraged but may even jeopardise the careers of those concerned.

This situation has been denounced on many occasions.

In a recommendation adopted at Grenoble on 13 and 14 December 1968, fifty-five young teachers and research workers from thirty European universities protested against the present inadequacy of communications and international exchanges between universities: "They felt it was essential to define clearly the conditions in which students and young teachers and research workers could become genuinely mobile, such mobility being at present difficult and almost impossible to attain for certain disciplines because of the existing structures and the division of national educational systems into watertight compartments. This leads to the paradoxical situation that in most disciplines and most European countries the student or young teacher who goes to a foreign university for one or more terms is penalised by delays in obtaining his diplomas or in the advancement of his career." (1)

On 23 - 25 October 1969 a colloquy was held at Overijse on the theme "Towards a European Community of Teachers and Research Workers". Its final report stressed the negative effects of the hierarchy on the development of mobility, and the following recommendation was made in the conclusions of Group 3 (report on mobility in university careers) which were unanimously adopted by the general assembly: "To bring about a loss of rigidity in the system of promotion in many universities." (2)

The Grenoble Colloquy, for its part, asked that teachers "might be able to pursue their careers in several countries without being penalised in respect of promotion and retirement". Naturally, this provision relates primarily to the position of teachers and research workers at the beginning of their careers when their situation is not secure enough for them to accept a period of service abroad (3).

This situation needs analysing.

In September 1968 the committee of candidates for the French agrégation in public law and political science, whose members had refused to sit for this examination in an attempt to get it abolished, produced a report recommending the unification of the teaching profession on the grounds that the various grades of staff in the university hierarchy had basically the same functions despite the differences in their salaries. The committee's basic idea was that a large number of

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(1) Conclusion of the European Seminar of Assistant Teachers, adopted unanimously. This seminar was organised by the "Association Europe Université" under the auspices of the University of Grenoble on 13 and 14 December 1968.

(2) Overijse Colloquy of 23 - 25 October 1969 organised by the "Association Inter-Université".

(3) Grenoble Colloquy of 29 - 31 October 1970: "Co-operation between the European Universities" organised by "Europe Université", published in the "Revue du Marché Commun", special issue of Dec. 1970 in French and English.

assistants x with doctorates and all maîtres assistants x, as well as chargés de cours et d'enseignement x, had the same responsibilities as full professors and maîtres de conférences x, so that the only reason for making distinctions in their status was that there existed a privileged élite trying jealously to retain its prerogatives by exploiting the lower grades. This analysis of the situation is not typically French, and it is also expressed in the claims made by the various grades of intermediate teachers.

It is, however, a very inadequate analysis; the complex and questionable situation facing us cannot be wholly ascribed to the (undoubted) conservatism of the most highly privileged teaching and research staff.

Any analysis of this subject must take as its starting-point the explosive growth in university education experienced by the various European countries in the wake of North America, the Soviet Union and Japan. The massive increase in students, the new responsibilities assumed by the universities, today with regard to adult education, tomorrow in the general context of permanent education, are rapidly swelling the ranks of the teachers (1).

The mass growth in higher education has led to a rapid increase in the number of moniteurs x, assistants and chargés de cours to whom the professors have gradually delegated more and more teaching, testing and examining responsibilities. Originally, these intermediate members of the hierarchy could expect, normally speaking, to become professors in their turn. The massive increase in the numbers of students, however, has demanded a corresponding rise in the number of teachers of junior and intermediate rank, the process of transmitting knowledge not having undergone any fundamental reform. The result has been an ever widening gap between the junior and intermediate grades of teacher and the senior grades. As this development has progressed the chances of becoming a professor have steadily diminished for young teachers and research workers and - this is implicitly very important - their duties and responsibilities have been transformed in the process.

It is very significant that assistants and other intermediate staff in all member States of the Council of Europe often complain that their posts make it more and more difficult to carry out their research work and that at the same time they are monopolised by purely educational or administrative duties (2).

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x Translation note:
Assistants: The first grade of the university hierarchy. They participate in practical work, supervised work and correction of exercises.
Maîtres assistants: Established staff responsible (a) for tutoring students in small groups in order to direct practical work and (b) for giving supplementary lectures under the direction of professors and maîtres de conférences responsible for the main teaching programme.
Chargés de cours et d'enseignement: Title given to staff members who, whether or not holding a doctorate, carry out the duties of a lectureship or of a vacant Chair.
Maîtres de conférences: Established staff of the rank of docteur d'Etat who take part under the direction of professors in the formal teaching programme.
Moniteur: A student responsible for tutoring a small group of junior students.

(1) Cf. OECD Conference on policies of educational expansion. Basic report No. 3: teachers and the expansion of education in member countries since 1950.

(2) Cf. Council of Europe CCC/ESR (71) 60. Committee for Higher Education and Research. Colloquy on the position of assistants (junior lecturers) and intermediary staff within the university staff structure. Strasbourg, 29 - 30 November 1971. Preliminary report by Mr. Soulage, University of Paris X.

It must be realised that despite declarations of good intentions, the wholesale increase in the numbers of junior and intermediate teachers with slimmer and slimmer chances of becoming professors is leading to a change in their responsibilities, which differ markedly from the traditional duties and responsibilities assigned to teachers in higher education.

Traditionally, a university teacher was expected not only to give tuition but also to do research. The current tendency, apparent in many universities and countries, is towards the intensive use of junior and intermediate teachers for purely teaching and administrative functions because no other solution has been sought - at least, none has been found - to cope with the explosive growth in university education.

As regards mobility, the result (although this is not sufficiently realised) is that under the present system nothing is really being done to encourage teachers to spend periods abroad, such teachers being essentially recruited to teach and to perpetuate the classical university structure. To use a colloquial phrase, they are needed "here and now"; this enables the traditional structure and functions of the university to be upheld.

All this is very far from the idea of investing in the future by granting these grades of teachers, like their predecessors, the right to scientific research and hence, since there is an obvious link between these two concepts, the right to mobility.

It is therefore clear that the subject of mobility of teachers and research workers, and in particular the practical measures which will be adopted to encourage it, are significant pointers to the plans which the public and academic authorities have for higher education and the universities.

At this point in our analysis, in fact, a choice has to be made, and in order to clarify the discussion we should like to mention two completely contradictory arguments which suggest different futures for higher education and thus represent opposite poles in determining the future treatment of teachers and research workers and their right to mobility.

The first argument, which is fairly widespread, has been staunchly defended by Professor Vedel, Chairman of the Syndicat Autonome Français de l'Enseignement Supérieur, in several articles in the newspaper "Le Monde". Noting the explosion in the demand for university education, the author proposed that appropriate steps should be taken at the level of the university structure and functions, which should henceforth be divided into two sectors: the first and, so to speak, higher sector would comprise the teaching and research potential at an advanced level. It would constitute the university élite and would thus ensure the perpetuation of an institution which has proved its worth. Secondly, in order to meet the growing demand for post-secondary education, an elementary or first-stage university sector would be created which would have no specific responsibilities with regard to research but would assume responsibility for mass post-secondary education. There would then be, on the one hand universities which would remain truly universities awarding degrees and doctorates, and on the other hand, first-stage university centres and colleges which would prolong secondary education either for vocational purposes or in order to screen admissions to higher education proper.

This division into two sectors would correspond fairly closely to the division, which we observe today in a large number of European universities, between senior teachers who are expected to participate in scientific research and the other teachers who are mainly expected to teach. The value of this solution is that it avoids a frontal attack on the established structures while trying to tackle the problem of mass education by appropriate methods. In its various forms, therefore, it is widely supported.

Another forward-looking idea takes into account all the changes which present-day economic and social development imposes on education. This argument is based on an awareness of the pressing demands made on universities today:

- a growing demand for advanced education resulting from the percentage increase in the age groups admitted to universities;
- the responsibilities assumed by universities towards adults;
- the need to develop inter-disciplinarity owing to the impossibility of defining the different branches of education once and for all;
- the gradual changes which have affected the universities and all sectors of education in general as the overall concept of permanent education has progressed.

This will lead to a considerable alteration in the role of teachers: firstly, it is no longer possible to ask them to dispense knowledge in the classical manner. The demand for education is too great for the need to be met by methods inherited from the Middle Ages, especially the magisterial type of course. Knowledge will be transmitted by education processes which have undergone a revolutionary change (development of audio-visual aids, use of satellites, experiments with extra-mural universities, programmed education) and the teacher will be regarded as too valuable a product to be used for a series of tasks which can be gradually taken over by technical media. Far from trying to proletarianise the teacher, the aim on the contrary must be to help him to reconsider his role and responsibilities and to make use of the new means at his disposal, which will henceforth enable him to serve an ever wider range of "clients".

More and more sophisticated qualities will thus be required of the teacher. He will only be able to meet the new demands if he himself receives permanent education. Care must therefore be taken to avoid making a distinction between professors who should be research workers and junior teachers who would be merely responsible for perpetuating and transmitting the knowledge acquired. On the contrary, it will be more and more necessary for every teacher to be given training in research and to devote part of his time to it.

The second of these two solutions seems to us the wiser and more realistic one. A number of its elements have already ceased to be regarded as utopian and been put into practical effect in the United States (1).

In a visit we undertook to the United States in 1971 at the invitation of the State Department, in the course of which we toured not only the major universities both in the east and in the west but also colleges and universities of more modest size and reputation, we noted the two following characteristics (allowance being made for the shades of difference inevitable over such a wide area):

1. A considerable effort to develop the use of the most refined educational techniques so that the teacher is again enabled, wherever possible, to exercise his specific vocation, which is not to dispense passive knowledge such as can be found in every

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(1) This study makes no attempt to tackle the problem of the relationship between short and long cycles. In the United States and elsewhere, short cycles have received a considerable impetus in the context of community colleges. This study is only concerned with universities which, rather than transform their educational methods and thus precipitate the familiar redistribution of rights and duties among the teaching staff, prefer to ensure the perpetuation of the system by proletarianising junior and intermediate teachers.

textbook but to conduct scientific research proper, impart the results of that work and hold discussions with his students as part of their training. Television, computers, radio and microfilm have become everyday tools at the service of teacher and taught. Teachers who are relieved of the most weighty material burdens can do their job more effectively.

2. Correlatively, the university hierarchy is far simpler than in Europe. In a large number of universities there are just professors and assistant professors; they have the same functions, they both do research; there is a fair degree of equality between them; the existence of assistant professors is justified not by any difference in their duties but by the fact that the university wishes to test the assistant professor for four or five years before offering him the higher fees of a professor and to wait another two or three years before making him a permanent member of the teaching staff.

In conclusion, we think that in large measure, the vertical barriers are closely bound up with the increase in the demand for university education, the preservation of traditional structures and the refusal to transform university methods. Where these barriers serve no purpose, they should be abolished and replaced by a simple reorganisation of teaching and research staff. This is a basic condition for the real development of mobility. A mobility policy not based on such a rearrangement would be like a bandage on a wooden leg.

2. Diversity of recruitment

Mobility forms a single whole. It would be artificial to try to distinguish or differentiate between the geographical mobility of teachers and research workers and, for instance, mobility between the university world, the public services and industry. If a university does not encourage the admission to its ranks of representatives from other branches of activity it is hardly likely to welcome university staff from abroad.

After all, mobility is not sought simply because it is essential to the achievement of international university co-operation; it is also an important goal in that it will help universities to adjust to their new responsibilities towards society, starting with permanent education.

Mobility in all its forms - and we have seen how interdependent these forms are - therefore requires that universities should be able to call on as diversified a staff as possible to help them cope with their various responsibilities.

The level of diversification in recruitment is very uneven as between the different member States of the Council of Europe.

The greatest diversification is achieved when a university has complete or almost complete freedom in respect of recruitment - that is, when the national laws and regulations impose no precise criteria as regards nationality, admission to an examination, inclusion in a national "liste d'aptitude" or the obtaining of certain diplomas. Britain offers a very interesting example of university autonomy in this respect, and hence of the confidence placed in the ability of the universities to recruit teachers and research workers. This autonomy, which is remarkable from every point of view, enables British universities to call on professors from other countries as well as representatives from non-university branches of activity.

Recruitment is always much less diversified when the conditions of recruitment depend more on the laws and regulations issued by governments than on the wishes of the universities themselves. This tendency is all the more marked when the various procedures prescribed by countries governing access to the teaching profession have the effect of making teachers into civil servants.

Under pressure of circumstances and in order to offset the disadvantages of such a system, the countries are then obliged to amend their own civil service legislation, either by abolishing the nationality requirement as has been done very liberally in the Federal Republic of Germany or by creating a system of associate teachers as has been done in France, albeit on a limited scale.

As Professor Lichnerowicz stated in his concluding report to the Grenoble Symposium on co-operation between the European universities, with regard to "the recruitment of ordinary and teaching staff and research workers .... universities ought not to be in the same category as public services".

We might add: teachers ought not to be in the same category as civil servants.

Thought needs to be given to the possibility of devising, side-by-side with the civil service system where it exists, a system whereby contracts for an indefinite period are concluded between a teacher and the university. This proposal will naturally meet with the objection that only the status of civil servant gives teachers the freedom and independence of all authority which are basic prerequisites for the exercise of their functions. This assumption deserves closer examination. We might, for instance, consider whether the teacher's status really makes him freer and more efficient. At all events, contracts for an indefinite period are common in a whole series of organisations, especially international ones. They also exist in certain university institutions, particularly in the United States. We might try to analyse the procedures adopted.

The value of such a contract is twofold. It encourages mobility by associating it with the idea of personal advancement, since a given individual will only be tempted to change his university if his new post enables him to continue his research and teaching under better conditions with increased responsibilities and perhaps a higher salary. It will naturally be objected that this system may lead to contracts being terminated in certain cases and teachers not being re-employed by other universities.

In cases where the universities enjoy extensive autonomy and can recruit staff freely on their own responsibility, however, it is fair to ask whether that selection, based on the value of the research done by an individual and his teaching ability is not preferable to the formal, academic methods of selection employed nowadays in most of our countries.

The contract is also useful because it affords a two-way traffic between the university and other sectors of professional life; it is this mobility which we have called inter-sectorial. It would give the teacher a real chance to supplement his university experience by knowledge of life outside, from which in many cases his own research work and his approach to education would benefit. Furthermore, the university could quite easily - and in particular without great legal difficulty - engage for varying periods people who have proved their proficiency in the public sectors of the economy and society.

3. Harmonisation of careers

In the final report of the Grenoble Symposium there was one provision devoted specifically to the spirit in which international university co-operation must be conceived:

> "Academic reforms in progress in the various countries must contribute to building up universities which are at once compatible and diversified. The number of different types must be maintained and encouraged but the very differences must contribute towards the optimum exercise of the functions of each university, particularly its function of co-operation."

This recommendation is clearly relevant to the question of career harmonisation for teachers and research workers in Europe. The pitfalls of haphazard diversification, and of the arbitrary imposition of a single, paralysing model, must both be avoided. No one yet knows quite what the position of teachers will be in the next five or ten years: every opportunity must therefore be taken to experiment. This, however, does not absolve the governments, universities and international organisations from ensuring that harmony is established on certain fundamental points.

The drafting of a "European teachers' statute" has been mentioned in a number of political speeches - and by Mr. E. Faure in a speech at the Council of Europe. But no one has ever known exactly what this means (1).

If a European teachers' statute means that the governments are going jointly to define a single statute which would be binding on all countries and precise down to the last detail, making the teachers into super-civil servants who would no longer even have the merit and advantage of national diversity, then we must firmly reject any such idea.

On the other hand, if it means a European agreement setting out, in the manner of an outline law, some of the basic points which would encourage the mobility of teachers and research workers and their participation in international university co-operation, then we are strongly in favour of such a statute.

Such an outline statute could contain a few simple provisions such as:

- prohibition of the nationality clause;
- acceptance of foreign diplomas and degrees as qualifications for a teaching post, even when the candidate is a national;
- the requirement that a teacher must have spent at least one term in a foreign university in order to receive a permanent appointment;
- teaching and other work done abroad to be taken into account for career purposes.

IV INCENTIVES TO MOBILITY

It is not possible to list exhaustively the measures likely to induce teachers and research workers to become more mobile. For a teacher or research worker, the decision to leave one's own country in order to work in a foreign university depends on very many factors, and each person's assessment of the importance of this or that factor is essentially subjective. All sorts of professional, financial, family, emotional and cultural considerations come into play; no measure is really alien to the development of mobility and conversely, no measure is enough in itself to achieve mobility.

In the following study we shall not try to summarise the proposals which have been formulated either during international colloquies (such as those of Overijse and Grenoble) or by international organisations. We describe in this study, and especially in Part II, Chapter II, the proposals put forward by the Council of Europe; we have also referred on several occasions to the

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(1) A preliminary draft has been presented by the Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (German Academic Exchange Service) - Appendix 1.

conclusions of the various colloquies at which the problem has been discussed. We have noted that the list of measures for encouraging mobility which might be submitted to the public authorities for decision is very long and varied. It would therefore seem useful at this juncture to try to simplify the debate and focus it on a few fairly elementary proposals whose implementation should nevertheless be regarded as a matter of priority.

Four kinds of incentive should be devised:

1. The liberalisation and systematic dissemination of information

2. The extension of the right of teachers and research workers to permanent training

3. The creation of equalisation machinery

4. Reception facilities

1. The liberalisation and systematic dissemination of information

The barriers between the universities of European countries are of course strengthened by the lack of communication among them.

While the international organisations dealing with education possess information on the structure, functioning and aims of teaching and research institutions, they know how difficult it has been to collect such data: the information is rarely exhaustive, changes all the time and is extremely difficult to keep up to date.

National governments are in theory better acquainted with national situations, but nevertheless have the utmost difficulty in obtaining adequate, coherent information on foreign systems. Happily, their participation in international organisations enables them to obtain the information they need. But it is not always apparent that the information thus communicated to government staff and representatives is then circulated widely enough at national level.

This applies particularly to the basic institutions: universities, various non-university higher education establishments, laboratories and research centres. At this level the information available on the international situation is often scattered, fragmentary and always quite inadequate.

Despite the efforts made in recent years in the collection of information, there is clearly a growing discrepancy between the mass of information collected and centralised in one place or another and the extreme difficulty of processing and disseminating that information coherently and selectively for the purposes of those requiring it - i.e. the universities and other teaching and research institutions.

The problem in every case is attributable to the absence of a rational international system of university information. In some special cases, moreover, certain institutions, for reasons hard to understand, keep some of their information confidential, and this of course does not facilitate its circulation.

If an international system of university information is to be introduced, it is necessary to think out the nature of the information to be dispensed, the liberalisation of this information and its systematic circulation.

a. The nature of the information

To encourage mobility, it might be thought sufficient, for information purposes, that vacancies be advertised periodically in all European universities with all the necessary details about proposed working conditions and economic and social conditions.

This measure is quite indispensable. It has been strongly and repeatedly advocated by the European Association of young teachers and research workers. It should not be impossible to issue periodically an official gazette of European universities which would publish vacancies, texts concerning statutory conditions and the various basic texts governing higher education and research establishments in the different countries. Some people are surprised that such a measure, which would be simple to implement and inexpensive, has not yet been taken.

Yet it must be clearly understood that in the very interests of the development of mobility, such a measure, though absolutely necessary, would by no means be sufficient in itself.

The fact is that the somewhat bald, impersonal announcement of a vacant post at a foreign university does not normally provide sufficient information for a teacher or research worker willing to go abroad. He must also be supplied with regular, coherent information to familiarise him gradually with different systems and give him a diversified view of university life in Europe on which he can confer a certain order by his own reflections. His choice of Helsinki rather than Munich, London rather than Rome, or Hamburg rather than Paris should be based on certain considerations which are not merely financial but derive from a good knowledge of the academic geography of the European universities, and which will enable those concerned to make their choice with less risk of uncertainty and thus avoid the causes of future setbacks.

Information designed to encourage mobility must naturally relate to the actual conditions of that mobility, but in order to be fully effective it must go even further.

We accordingly endorse one of the essential demands made by the Grenoble Symposium in its final report:

> The Symposium suggested .... "that each university ought to demonstrate its character and originality by explaining its policy aims in regard to both teaching and research at regular intervals (e.g. every four or five years). In defining its policy it should analyse what it expects from co-operation and what services it can render to the community. It should specify certain fields of research for which it hopes to achieve or maintain special fitness."

Information should not, therefore, be focused on mobility alone but should take a more comprehensive form which would serve mobility more effectively.

b. The liberalisation of information

"Liberalisation" of information means that it should be made available to all those for whom it is likely to have any significance.

The need for liberalisation applies first of all to the question of vacant posts. In the recent past at least the universities, in the interests of localism and in order to keep a tighter check on applications, have observed a kind of silence on vacant assistant posts and intermediate posts in general. This is a wholly malthusian practice which is forbidden under many national systems of

law and on the decline nearly all over Europe. It is nevertheless important, especially for first jobs, that vacancies in all European universities should be published in time for all applications meeting the conditions laid down in the advertisement to be examined.

The liberalisation of information, however, does not only concern the universities. There is no reason whatever why information concerning university-type education and scientific research, or university innovations, should be regarded as top secret. Unlike military and industrial matters, university questions have no cause to be shrouded in secrecy. National and international bodies cannot be asked too often to practise the "glass-house" policy in full and to the letter wherever they do not already do so. Successes and failures alike are always instructive for the international scientific community. The information must be comprehensive and honest. This is an essential condition for the development of mobility.

c. The systematic dissemination of information

Information about universities is largely uncoordinated, and this leads not only to inevitable overlapping and wastage, but also to all too frequent ignorance in one country of the results obtained in another. Information is collected in a very inefficient way; it is almost impossible at present to obtain an overall view of innovations in higher education and their results. Information about research conducted and experiments undertaken is not circulated at all adequately. The principal shortcoming is lack of international consultation, and hence failure to make rational use of the results.

An exemplary measure would be to set up a European office for university information as recommended in the final report of the Grenoble Symposium. It would offer a useful example to other continents and its imitation in other parts of the globe would at last make possible that genuinely international co-operation which every university desires, by reason of its very aspirations to universality.

The main purpose of a European office for university information would be to make available to governments, institutions and university teachers and students all information about research undertaken and innovations introduced in the field of higher education.

The office would act in such a way that it was able, for obvious reasons of efficiency and coordination, to take into account all the activities of national and international institutions. It might even conclude agreements on the allocation of functions with each such institution whenever circumstances so permitted. In addition, the office would ensure the selective circulation of information in accordance with the specific needs of university staff, students, administrators, experimental centres, vocational training organisations, and so forth.

As has been said, the content of the information would go beyond the problem of mobility as such. The office would supply information on the following matters:

a. University planning machinery
- ideas about future projects;
- research into forecasting and planning;
- model building;
- pointers to development.

b. Educational finance
- adjustment of statistical and accounting systems;
- research into the costs of education.

c. Management
- adaptation of the planning-programming-budgeting system to educational establishments;
- introduction of modern management methods.

d. Educational technology
- use of the new teaching techniques in mass education: audio-visual aids, programmed teaching, video-cassettes etc.

e. The structures and working of the educational system
- effects on these structures of the development of pluridisciplinarity and inter-disciplinarity;
- transformation of university institutions as a result of the development of permanent education;
- transformation of the structures and working of universities by the introduction of participation.

f. Co-operation between European universities
- on the scientific and documentary level (publication of the aims of universities - see above);
- drawing up of a code of norms for advanced educational concepts;
- mobility of teachers, research workers and students.

As the main purpose of the office would be to contribute effectively to changes in the universities through international co-operation and mobility, it should be organised in such a way as to ensure maximum efficiency and impact. There are many instances of centres of a very high standard which have been created and done research of remarkable quality, but the people who would have been interested in their findings have remained ignorant of them. Such centres have had no influence whatever.

The office must be so organised that its information has a direct impact on educational systems. It is through close association between higher education and research establishments and the office itself that this problem can be overcome.

The best way of ensuring success would be for the universities and other higher education establishments to be associated with the work of the office in the two following ways:

- representation of the universities on the office's decision-making bodies;

- appointment in each university of a paid liaison officer to help collect and disseminate information.

Thus the office's main duty would be to develop a methodical, systematic information service using every possible means, particularly conferences and seminars, the press and other communications media.

2. The extension of the right of teachers and research workers to permanent training

There is a widespread belief that higher education and university staff receive permanent training on a daily, or at least regular, basis because they must not only keep their knowledge up to date for the purposes of teaching but also extend that knowledge by research undertaken either individually or collectively.

The developments described above, however, have shown us that this ideal situation no longer obtains in reality:

- firstly, a large number of teachers in junior or intermediate posts are finding it more and more difficult to pursue their research work, and sometimes even to keep abreast of advances in their own subjects owing to their heavy workload of teaching and administration;

- secondly, even teachers and research workers at the top of the ladder find that because of the accumulation and enlargement of their responsibilities they have the greatest difficulty in directing research and adapting their knowledge and work along lines conducive to inter-disciplinarity, permanent education or international co-operation.

Thus the right to permanent training has become an absolute necessity for university teachers and research workers, just as for all other workers. In fact, the ability of teachers and research workers to adapt to their new responsibilities depends on the recognition of this right; the provision of this permanent training is, moreover, closely linked with the development of mobility among teachers and research workers.

The institution of the sabbatical year in the United States has for long provided the answer to the twofold aim of ensuring further training for the teacher and broadening his horizons by enabling him to visit universities abroad. Similarly, it would be a good thing for European teachers and research workers to be given varying periods of sabbatical leave which would make it easy for them to attend functions of short duration (colloquies), medium duration (conferences or training courses), or long duration (full participation in the life of a foreign university department). The introduction of sabbatical leave would have the advantage of enabling university staff:

- to get to know a foreign country;
- to learn and use a foreign language, including the vocabulary of their own speciality;
- and thus to prepare for possibly longer visits.

3. The creation of equalisation machinery

Two series of problems need to be solved:

- the regulation of the social rights of migrant academic workers;
- compensatory measures to offset the disadvantages of mobility in respect of certain countries.

a. Social rights

As far as member States of the European Community are concerned, Regulations 3 and 4 on the social security of migrant workers are applicable to teachers and research workers.

In the wider context of member states of the Council of Europe there is no general solution.

Measures should be taken by the member states, on the recommendation of the Council of Europe, to guarantee the social security, family allowance and retirement pension rights of all teachers and research workers performing their duties in a country other than their own. (The pension system in force in Britain and described in the British monograph offers an excellent example of what can be done to encourage mobility.

b. Compensatory measures to overcome the disadvantages of mobility

Not all forms of mobility represent a step forward, especially for the least well-off countries which are victims of the brain drain and the smallest universities where staff departures give rise to considerable difficulties.

In tackling these problems the principle of a certain solidarity between the European countries and universities should no doubt be applied. Two practical measures might be envisaged:

- First, the creation of a European equalisation fund. This fund would receive contributions from states and foundations. Its purpose would be to make compensatory payments to university teachers moving to countries where salaries are lower in order that they may continue to enjoy the financial advantages acquired in previous posts. The fund would not operate automatically, due heed being paid to the efforts made by the beneficiary countries to equalise the burdens themselves.

- Secondly, the adoption of a system to encourage "post-to-post" exchanges so that the departure of a teacher, especially where the smaller universities are concerned, does not create such difficulties that mobility is unacceptable.

4. Reception facilities

The problems entailed by the arrival of a foreign teacher or research worker are as numerous as they are unpredictable, and it would be impossible to list them all.

Nevertheless, universities should collaborate with the public authorities, and if possible with foundations, in arranging reception facilities to help newcomers solve the main problems they have to face, namely:

- accommodation,

- schooling for their children,

- language difficulties,

- adaptation to their new surroundings (public services, tradesmen, neighbours, colleagues etc).

PART II

ACTIVITIES OF THE INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

This part describes the ideas and activities of UNESCO, the Council of Europe and the European Communities with regard to university co-operation and the mobility of teachers and research workers.

We have not been able to deal with the work of other international organisations which are also associated with such work, albeit sometimes more indirectly (WHO, CERN, OECD etc).

Nor has it been possible, to our regret, to study in depth the sometimes very active role played by certain non-governmental international organisations - though some of them, and especially learned societies, exert a discreet but definite influence on the development of university co-operation and international mobility.

CHAPTER I

THE UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANISATION (UNESCO)

The aim of UNESCO is "to contribute to peace and security by promoting collaboration among the nations through education, science and culture in order to further universal respect for justice, for the rule of law and for the human rights and fundamental freedoms which are affirmed for all the peoples of the world without distinction of race, sex, language or religion".

The organisation:

- gives a powerful impetus to popular education and the dissemination of culture,
- helps the preservation, advancement and dissemination of knowledge by encouraging co-operation between the nations in all branches of intellectual activity and the international exchange of representatives of education, science and culture.

UNESCO carries out a great many activities in the field of higher education. With regard to international university co-operation and the mobility of teachers and research workers, 7 main groups of activities (1) may be mentioned.

I. International comparability and equivalence of secondary school certificates and higher education diplomas and degrees.

1. Resolution 12416 of the general conference authorised the Director-General to continue efforts to secure the international comparability and equivalence of diplomas.

This long-term project has the following aims:

- to increase the international mobility of teachers, research workers and students and thus enable better use to be made of training resources;
- to solve the problems of return to the country of origin of persons who leave to complete their training abroad.

2. Various studies have been undertaken in this connection: in 1968 the first 2 volumes of the series "Studies on international equivalence of degrees" were submitted for publication. The first is entitled "Glossaire international - Terms d'usage courant en matière de certificats d'études secondaires et de diplômes et grades de l'enseignement supérieur dans quarante-cinq pays"

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(1) Activities carried out by UNESCO itself. Mention should also be made of its co-operation with non-governmental organisations (eg International Association of Universities (IAU), Association of Partially or Wholly French-language Universities (AUPELF), International Association of University Professors and Lecturers (IAUPL)), private foundations and other interested bodies. It takes the form of the presence of UNESCO observers at the various colloquies and meetings of these organisations and the conclusion of study contracts on higher education, eg 2 contracts with IAUPL which led to the publication of:

- "The status of university teachers", Shryock Richard H, Report from sixteen countries, prepared with the assistance of UNESCO. Ghent, IAUPL, 1961, 223 p.
- "The recruitment and training of university teachers", Ghent 1967 IAU - "Le recrutement du personnel de l'enseignement supérieur (quelques situations européenes)", Paris Bureau International des Universités, 1958, 177 p.

(International Glossary - Terms in current use concerning secondary school certificates and higher education diplomas and degrees in forty-five countries) and the other is entitled: "Methods of establishing equivalences between degrees and diplomas".

3. The Secretariat endeavours to foster meetings between representatives of universities, professional associations and governmental bodies, in order to facilitate the drafting and conclusion of bilateral, international and regional agreements (cf Appendix II).

II. Creation of information exchange services

III. Aid to states in planning policy and scientific research

IV. Studies on various aspects of higher education. Example: "Teaching staff abroad", joint UNESCO - International Bureau of Education publications, Geneva, no. 289.

V. The "Education Abroad" service operated from 1947 to 1968. It had 2 aims:

- in general: to arrange teachers' exchanges,
- in particular: to help the African member countries recruit foreign teachers until such time as they could meet their needs themselves.

According to Resolution 6-22 of December 1962, the Director-General is authorised to take "practical measures to develop opportunities for teaching abroad through assisting African member states and associate members in meeting their needs for foreign staff of the secondary, post-secondary and university levels of education".

1. This service accordingly pursued 3 activities:

a. It served as an information centre for the recruitment of teachers wishing to teach in African countries;

b. It arranged for the recruitment of teachers in collaboration with national recruitment bodies;

c. It provided liaison between these recruitment bodies and the African authorities wishing to employ foreign teachers.

2. This service sought to encourage the creation or development of national recruitment bodies. These bodies were to act as intermediaries between the teachers and the African authorities employing them or between those same persons and UNESCO. This involved:

a. supplying candidates with all relevant information,

b. solving the various problems posed by the teachers themselves (equivalence of degrees and diplomas, transfers, secondment etc),

c. helping the candidates to conclude their contracts with the African authorities.

3. Attention is drawn to the survey conducted by the "Education Abroad" service at the request of the Executive Secretary of the Economic Commission for Africa (March - November 1965). The main purpose of this study was to help the governments and other national bodies in the African countries or territories firstly, to determine more precisely their needs in respect of national specialised staff capable of furthering the economic and social development of Africa, and secondly, to give more effective vocational guidance to students wishing to receive higher education or advanced training in their own country or abroad.

VI. Conditions applicable to teachers

1. The resolution concerning the conditions applicable to teachers laid down certain general principles (cf Appendix III).

Reports were subsequently received from member states concerning the implementation of this resolution, in reply to a questionnaire prepared by the joint ILO/UNESCO committee.

2. An analysis of these first reports undertaken in May 1970 laid emphasis on the action needed to facilitate the implementation of this resolution:

a. An international study on the university facilities which various grades of teacher should enjoy. It was found that certain provisions which did not entail financial sacrifices were being very inadequately applied. This was true of the provisions guaranteeing teachers the same civic, social and economic rights as the rest of the population, professional freedom and the right for them and their organisations to participate in university life.

b. Regional enquiries into changes in teacher training in the various countries.

c. An international enquiry into the overall question of teachers' salaries.

VII. The European Centre for Higher Education

1. Resolution 1241 adopted by the general conference authorised the Director to take steps to develop higher education and to this end to circulate information on the subject in collaboration with the international, governmental and non-governmental organisations dealing with university policy.

2. Following this resolution, a programme of work was adopted which provided for the creation in 1972 of a European Centre for Higher Education in response to a decision taken by the European Conference of Ministers of Education (Vienna, November 1967). Among other things, this centre would be responsible for facilitating exchanges of teachers and students between higher education establishments in Europe.

3. This European Centre for Higher Education was created on 14 September 1972. Its seat is in Bucharest.

Its functions were defined in Resolution 1.321 (d) as follows:

1. To collect documentation on the problems of post-secondary education in Europe and to encourage co-ordination between the national and international documentation centres in this field;

2. To make a thorough study of certain essential aspects of the development of post-secondary systems and institutions in Europe and to circulate the results of this study;

3. To promote, as far as its resources allow, the mobility of teachers and students in Europe

The centre's programme of work will be drawn up by its Director and approved by the Director-General, on the advice of a standing consultative committee. This consultative committee, composed of representatives of European universities appointed by the Director-General, will meet once or twice a year in the presence of a representative of the Director-General. At these meetings the Director of the centre will act as Secretary of the consultative committee.

It will be noted that the centre has been attached to the Higher Education Division of UNESCO.

The centre's organs are now being installed and its working methods defined.

CHAPTER II

THE COUNCIL OF EUROPE

Article 1 of the Statute of the Council of Europe states:

"a. The aim of the Council of Europe is to achieve a greater unity between its members for the purpose of safeguarding and realising the ideals and principles which are their common heritage and facilitating their economic and social progress.

b. This aim shall be pursued through the organs of the Council by discussion of questions of common concern and by agreements and common action in economic, social, cultural, scientific, legal and administrative matters, and in the maintenance and further realisation of human rights and fundamental freedoms.

..."

The Council of Europe's responsibilities and resources in the field of education and science were substantially increased by the transfer from Western European Union to the Council at the beginning of 1960 of responsibility for intergovernmental co-operation in the fields of higher education and research. On 16 December 1961 the Committee of Ministers decided to set up a technical committee entitled the Council for Cultural Co-operation (CCC) and requested it to establish 3 permanent committees to be responsible to it:

- higher education and research,
- general and technical education,
- out-of-school education.

These committees were appointed at the beginning of 1962, and the Committee for Higher Education and Research was incorporated into the CCC as a permanent committee in April 1962. Thus the instrument was forged which was to enable the Council of Europe to take action in the field of university co-operation and mobility of teachers and research workers (1).

The committee is composed of 2 representatives per member state of the CCC, appointed annually by their governments - namely, a senior government official and a university member designated by the competent university bodies.

Co-ordination between the work of the committee and that of other international organisations is ensured by the presence of observers at meetings. Thus UNESCO, OECD, the European Communities and the International Association of Universities have all been represented at committee sessions. A link with the Standing Conference of Rectors and Vice-Chancellors of the

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(1) As a permanent committee of the CCC, the Committee for Higher Education and Research submits its annual programme of work to the CCC for approval. The committee remains responsible for initiating this programme and deciding on its overall policy, as well as for its implementation. From its budget, the CCC provides the committee with the funds it needs. The committee may make recommendations to governments, universities and non-governmental organisations. These recommendations require the explicit approval of the CCC and are made via the Committee of Ministers (for a few details concerning the committee and its background, see CCC/ESR (70) 43).

European Universities is provided by the fact that a large number of the committee's university members are also members of the Standing Conference of Rectors.

The committee has quite extensive powers. Its terms of reference require it to:

a. ensure or encourage co-operation between European nations in the field of higher education and research;

b. address opinions and recommendations on problems in this field to European governments and intergovernmental organisations;

c. promote closer relations between universities and European institutions of higher education and research;

d. prepare any documentation, carry out any studies and publish any material deemed useful;

e. maintain liaison with international organisations concerned with higher education and research.

The report submitted by the Committee of Senior Officials to the 7th Conference of European Ministers for Education held in Brussels from 8 to 10 June 1971 recalls in its appendices the activities of the Council of Europe to encourage the mobility of students and teachers in higher education and research workers (CME/VII (71) 5). Thus it is concerned with the mobility of both students and staff in higher education and research; only the question of staff mobility really concerns us here. But there are obvious connections between what is being done to promote the equivalence of diplomas and the prospects of mobility of future young teachers in the university hierarchy of foreign countries. It is in this connection that measures relating to the mobility of students also affect the mobility of staff in higher education and research. We therefore feel it may be useful to recapitulate, as is done by the senior officials in Appendix III to the above-mentioned report, what the Council of Europe is doing to encourage the mobility of all members of the university community either directly or indirectly:

I. The Committee for Higher Education and Research is carrying out a series of different activities the successful completion of which will unquestionably help to increase the mobility of both students and staff in higher education and research:

1. Curricula studies

Comparative studies on the teaching of certain subjects at university level in Europe.

2. Research resources

Reports on European research resources in certain fields.

3. Research conferences

A number of research conferences in various fields organised by private associations of research workers have been supported by small grants enabling young research workers to meet.

4. Modern language teaching and educational technology

Action in these 2 fields is designed to encourage exchanges, experiments and technical assistance in Europe.

II. There is one s e r i e s o f m e a s u r e s directed more specifically towards student mobility:

1. The university conventions

a. European convention on the equivalence of diplomas leading to admission to universities (11 December 1953), to which a protocol was added on 3 June 1964.

b. European convention on the equivalence of periods of university study (15 December 1956).

c. European convention on the academic recognition of university qualifications (14 December 1959).

These are undertakings in principle either to grant equivalence of diplomas for admission to universities, or to lay down equivalences between periods of study by unilateral or bilateral agreements, or again to recognise foreign degrees or diplomas as entitling the holder to continue his university studies in the same conditions as those applied to nationals with the same university qualifications.

The Committee for Higher Education and Research of the Council of Europe is continuing to study these problems and is concerned in particular with the practical implementation of these conventions.

The 1970 programme was devoted, firstly, to detailed study of the problems of equivalence at university level, and the effectiveness of the 3 conventions relating to equivalence in particular; secondly, to the preparation of an inventory of national laws, orders and regulations recognising the various foreign diplomas, degrees and certificates.

In 1971 a second meeting of national equivalence experts was asked to prepare an inventory of existing diplomas and degrees in certain disciplines and to investigate the possibilities of overcoming some of the obstacles to the general recognition of diplomas.

The Committee for Higher Education and Research also decided:

- to convene a working party on questions of mobility and equivalence, especially with regard to the free use of foreign academic titles and the possible introduction of a "European student's record book" (1972);
- to convene a third meeting of national equivalence experts (1972);
- to commission a study on information concerning equivalences (1972);
- to continue to promote the preparation of national and international lists and repertories of degrees, diplomas and certificates for the purpose of better information;
- to promote further bilateral and multilateral equivalence agreements;
- to analyse national legislation with the aim of finding out to what extent individual provisions constitute an obstacle to mobility of students and higher education and research staff.

It will be noted that this last part of the programme is concerned with the mobility both of students and of staff in higher education and research.

2. The 1965 Recommendation on the mobility of students

At its 11th meeting the Committee for Higher Education and Research recommended:

a. that member states should enquire how far and on what practical basis study abroad by undergraduate students is likely to be promoted;

b. that, in the case of students studying abroad, national scholarships should continue to be paid and be adapted to the actual costs in the respective foreign country.

This second recommendation has led to an Agreement on the continued payment of national scholarships to students studying abroad, which has so far been signed by Denmark, France, Iceland, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. Under the terms of this agreement a state which has awarded a scholarship to a student who is a national must continue to pay this scholarship if the student continues his study or research on the territory of another state. The student must request authorisation to study abroad, and the authorities supervising his studies or research (usually the university) must give their approval.

In cases where the award of scholarships comes within the competence of an authority other than the state (eg the autonomous universities) the state cannot of course decide itself to continue payment but must transmit the text of the agreement to the competent authorities and encourage them to apply its principles. "Scholarship" is taken to mean any form of direct financial support granted to students at higher education establishments.

III. The committee is continuing to work out a policy of mobility for higher education and research staff

1. 1965 Recommendation on mobility of university staff

At its 11th meeting (Strasbourg 8 - 12 March 1965, CCC/ESR (65) 12 rev.) the committee adopted a recommendation concerning the free movement of academic personnel.

The essentials of this recommendation can be summed up as follows:

All university teachers and research workers should be able to take up any university teaching or research appointment in any member state regardless of their nationality, in full equality and solely on their qualifications.

The competent authorities are requested to take all necessary measures and in particular:

a. to remove any legislative or administrative obstacles;

b. to facilitate the presence in their country of university teachers coming from abroad and to ensure in particular:

- the continued payment of salary or part thereof (depending on the contribution of the host university where applicable), upon recommendation of the faculty (and/or other university authorities responsible in any given case),
- preservation of pension rights,
- payment of travel costs (from or to other countries),
- payment of the supplementary expenses resulting from change of residence (for persons going abroad or coming from abroad),
- payment of social security and other benefits;

c. to reserve a certain number of posts for teachers and research workers from abroad;

d. to grant prolonged research leave;

e. to ensure adequate staffing of universities so that the prolonged absence of a staff member does not create insoluble problems.

f. The committee also recommended:

- Summer schools

National authorities should put at the disposal of universities sufficient means to develop the system of summer courses and summer schools;

The universities should organise a new type of summer school for young research workers in a given specialty coming from different countries.

- Sojourns abroad of short duration

National authorities should give university personnel at post-doctoral level (in exceptional cases at pre-doctoral level) the means to visit a foreign country for a week, a fortnight or a month, in order to study a given teaching method or technique developed in that country;

National authorities should enable the universities to invite an expert in a given pedagogic approach or a given technique to come for a short period in order to explain this approach or technique.

- "Simultaneous appointment" of foreign university teachers

Steps should be taken to promote the nomination of teachers from foreign (European) universities as full members of a faculty or department without prejudice to their original appointment.

- Exchanges of university administrators

As far as possible, visits and temporary attachments of administrative personnel between the different universities should be fostered;

The necessary means should be made available either at the national level or at the level of individual universities.

- Appeal to foreign examiners

Professors from other universities should be invited as full members of examining boards, especially for examinations at doctorate level, if this would be to the advantage of the university, the candidate and the progress of teaching and research.

- Participation of foreign experts in nomination procedures for academic appointments

Professors from universities in other European countries should, as far as possible, be consulted in the course of the procedures designed to evaluate the qualifications of potential chair holders.

This recommendation is an important one. If this text were duly implemented in the member states of the Council of Europe, a very large number of obstacles to mobility would certainly be removed and mobility would be greatly eased. It is clear, however, that a whole series of recommendations contained in this text have still not become law in all member states, as is readily apparent from the chapter which examines the policy of various states and institutions regarding mobility.

It might be useful for the Committee for Higher Education and Research to devote part of its future programmes to the search for practical measures (and first of all by consultation with the various institutions concerned in the member states) in order to give effect to the provisions of the 1965 Recommendation. In this event the committee should seek the assistance of a group of

national experts responsible for keeping a systematic watch on laws and regulations and university circulars, instructions and rules relating to the mobility of teachers and research workers. It will be noted that this suggestion covers that part of the programme of the Committee for Higher Education and Research in which it is proposed to "analyse national legislation with the aim of finding out to what extent individual provisions constitute an obstacle to mobility of students and higher education and research staff". Our suggestion simply seeks to add 2 elements to this part of the programme - ie the creation of a permanent group of experts and regular consultation by the Committee for Higher Education and Research with national authorities in order effectively to remove obstacles to mobility.

2. Study of obstacles to the mobility of university staff

This study was commissioned in 1970 in order to identify the main obstacles to co-operation between the universities and to the free movement of research workers and other categories of university staff. Its purpose was to make proposals for common European action to remove these obstacles.

This paper was presented to a meeting of experts in Strasbourg on 4 and 5 November 1971 (1). A preliminary discussion was held on the proposals put forward. The experts mainly considered the problems of short-term mobility (CCC/ESR (71) 84) and asked that a meeting should be held in 1972 on long-term mobility.

This second meeting of experts was held on 23 and 24 November 1972. The government experts chiefly discussed an extensive study project for enabling mobility to be gradually achieved in practice (CCC/ESR (72) 116). At this meeting the experts were presented by the German Academic Exchange Service (Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst) with an interesting proposal concerning "European status for staff in higher education and research" (CCC/ESR (72) 109), the text of which is appended.

3. Study of access to university careers

The 1971 programme also included a study of conditions governing access to the career of a university teacher and their implications for education (pedagogics), research and innovation.

The Committee for Higher Education and Research also envisages convening a meeting on recruitment to careers in higher education and research and intersectorial mobility between post-secondary education, industry and independent research centres (1972).

4. The Committee for Higher Education and Research includes mobility in its efforts to co-ordinate university research at European level

The co-ordination of research policies and the division of research work between the various European universities will require a big increase in the mobility of university staff. At the same time, the development of such co-operation will justify and facilitate this greater mobility. Close

(1) The group consisted of the following members: Austria: Mr Fritz Temmel - Belgium: Mr S Franeau and Mr Deloz - Federal Republic of Germany: Ministerialdirigent Freiherr von Medem and Dr. Votts - France: Mr Ourisson - Italy: Prof. Vincenzo Ussani - Netherlands: Dr. Moorman van Waffen - Sweden: Mrs Kerstin Sönnerlind - Switzerland: Mrs E Michel-Alder - United Kingdom: Prof. Sir Harold Thompson. Consultant: Mr H Lesguillons - Observers: Mr M Trafero Ballestro (UNESCO), Mr Salomon (OECD) - Secretariat: Mr H Beesley and Mr M Vorbeck.

attention should therefore be paid to Resolution (70) 18 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe, adopted by the Ministers' Deputies on 5 June 1970, on the co-ordination of university research on a European level. We quote this resolution in full, despite its length, in view of its importance for the future of university co-operation in Europe and the furtherance of mobility:

"The Committee of Ministers,

Having regard to Recommendation No. 42 on the co-ordination of university research on a European level adopted by the Council for Cultural Co-operation on the proposal of its Committee for Higher Education and Research;

Considering

1. that it is no longer possible for the European universities to do research work in all fields at the same time and with the same intensity, because it has become extremely expensive and there is a shortage in qualified staff;

2. that a certain specialisation and diversification of research going on inside and outside the universities is inevitable, if the limited European resources are to be used in the best and most rational way;

3. that there is a need to promote exchange and mobility of research workers in Europe;

Appreciating

the various developments at national level aiming at the definition of research priorities and at the selection of research centres for increased support ('high activity centres', 'centres d'excellence', 'Schwerpunkte', 'Sonderforschungsbereiche' etc), while, at the same time, research in the subject concerned is abandoned at other places or is merely pursued in the manner required for the teaching of the students,

Recommends to governments of member states/parties to the European Cultural Convention:

i. that all possibilities of dividing tasks among universities and other research institutions and of adopting a system of selecting growing points in the various fields of research be carefully examined at national level;

ii. that member states - through their national delegations - inform the Secretariat of the Council of Europe on all important developments in the field of university research co-ordination. In countries where certain university centres of research are enjoying particular support, or are - due to historical or geographical facts - offering special facilities, the names of such centres should be provided. Each list of centres of particular interest to other European countries should - if possible - also contain information on the size of the centre concerned (staff and equipment), and the major research projects and facilities offered for students and research workers from other countries;

iii. that the Secretariat should collect and keep up to date this information and make it available to all member states so that interested research workers are informed at which places in Europe a particular subject is given priority or particular facilities are offered;

iv. that centres of university research which are enjoying particular support or which offer particular facilities should also be provided - as far as possible - with appropriate working facilities enabling students and research workers from other member countries to come and study or work at these centres;

v. that all national authorities responsible for the co-ordination of university research - provided there are such authorities - should wherever possible take account of priorities

adopted, or particular research facilities offered, in other European countries when defining their own research policy and examining the distribution of financial resources at the national level."

Report CME/VII(71) 5, presented by the Committee of Senior Officials to the 7th Conference of European Ministers for Education, diagnoses the present situation as regards mobility, identifies the problems to be solved and proposes a common European action. These various points are discussed in Part I of this report: "Towards a concerted policy of mobility".

The subject of mobility would now appear to be one of the priorities of the Committee for Higher Education and Research (see doc. CCC/ESR(72) 97). The CCC programme for 1974 comprises, among other things:

- the improvement of information on mobility;
- the promotion of short-term mobility for post-graduate students and junior staff;
- the drafting of a European agreement on certain principles governing the role and position of visiting staff from abroad;
- promotion of the full integration of foreign staff members as permanent members of the teaching body.

CHAPTER III

THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES

The activities of the European Communities in encouraging mobility of students and staff in higher education and research are described in a very precise note which is appended to the report of the Committee of Senior Officials (1). We shall summarise those parts of this note which seem relevant to our purpose and add a few considerations on the proposed meeting of Ministers of Education of the Six, since this meeting might help to promote inter-university co-operation and university mobility within the Communities.

I. Mutual recognition of diplomas

Under Article 57-1 of the Rome Treaty, the European Community can adopt directives on the mutual recognition of diplomas in order to facilitate the free movement of professional (= "non-wage-earning") persons. The mutual recognition of diplomas thus differs from the concept of equivalence in that its aim is purely "vocational". It is designed chiefly to facilitate engagement in particular activities or the right to hold a vocational or professional qualification. It is thus aimed at what is called the "end-product". Consequently, it does not necessarily entail equivalence of study courses.

Although the purpose of directives on the mutual recognition of diplomas is a vocational one, such directives may nevertheless have an academic effect.

There is the danger, for instance, that directives on mutual recognition based on the idea of length of studies or courses attended might have the undesirable effect of hindering reforms designed to improve courses, particularly where they might be shortened through greater educational efficiency. Concern on this subject appears to have been expressed recently both by the Conference of Rectors of the Federal Republic of Germany and by the French Ministry of Education. It will probably lead to keener interest on the part of the Ministers for Education and the academic authorities of Community states in the mutual recognition of diplomas, whose implications extend beyond the professional sphere, as is now universally agreed.

The mutual recognition of diplomas thus has a precise aim: freedom of movement. In principle this freedom also applies to teachers, since the right of establishment covers the activities of teachers like any other economic or social activity. Consequently, teachers are also faced with the problem of the mutual recognition of diplomas. This subject is now under consideration. One legal difficulty, however, cannot be ignored: in most member states a large number of teachers have a status akin to that of civil servants. As such they are not entitled to freedom of movement under Article 48-4 of the Rome Treaty.

So far the commission has adopted 19 draft directives relating to training conditions. They concern the following professions: engineer, architect, doctor, dentist, pharmacist, veterinary surgeon, optician, midwife, nurse, accountant.

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(1) Appendix IV - CME/VII (71) 5.

These directives and opinions have been submitted to the Council of Ministers, which has started work on the directives relating to architects and pharmacists. There is thus a marked contrast between the volume of preparatory studies carried out by the commission, which have taken practical shape in the adoption of the 19 draft directives, and the painfully slow rate at which the Council of Ministers is examining the matter. This slowness seems symptomatic of the social difficulties and political repercussions of this type of project. No doubt various pressure groups and professional associations are engaged in - often contradictory - activities which hamper the progress of this programme. That is of course not surprising in view of the complexity of the situations involved and of the interests at stake. The new interest being taken by the academic authorities in this problem, while perfectly logical, and indeed a practical necessity, may nevertheless slow down the decision-making process even further.

II. The work being done to remove administrative, statutory, financial, psychological and social obstacles and to encourage mobility

Disparity of training backgrounds is not the only obstacle to the mobility of scientists. The Communities have embarked upon a systematic study of the other obstacles, and the means of overcoming them. They are also investigating ways of stimulating mobility among scientists.

A large part of the work now in progress is directed towards the definition and implementation of a Community policy on science and technology which will be commensurate with the importance of the research-development-innovation process for economic growth and social advancement.

At its session on 31 October 1967 the Council of the European Communities instructed the "Scientific and Technical Research Policy Group" (PREST) to examine ways and means of ensuring a more intensive exchange of scientists. To this end, the group appointed a working party of specialists to study all the problems arising in this field. The working party is expected to report by the end of the year.

A short list of the subjects currently under study is given below.

1. Aims of mobility of exchanges

If the research-development-innovation process is to be effective, various specialists must be available in sufficient quality and quantity, wherever and whenever they are needed. This requirement raises problems of geographical and professional mobility.

Mobility should enable the most efficient use to be made both of manpower and of facilities, especially by the constitution of optimal teams in the fields of education, research and production.

2. Categories which must be encouraged to be more mobile

Special attention should be given to the following categories of persons:

- teachers in higher education;
- persons engaged in research;
- persons whose jobs call for a high scientific qualification or specialisation;
- holders of basic scientific diplomas who wish to continue their training at a higher level.

3. Definition of mobility

The work concerns the geographical mobility of scientists within the Communities from the point of view both of scientists who wish to complete their training or take up a career abroad and of organisations wishing to receive scientists who are nationals of other countries.

Much importance must also be attached to mobility within a profession, since rigid dividing lines between research functions and production functions are likely to slow down the process of innovation. Conditions must also be created to enable research workers to pursue a normal career.

4. Types of problem which must be solved in order to increase geographical mobility and which are currently under study

a. Obstacles due to differences in training (eg inflexibility on the part of the authorities responsible for student admissions in the assessment of diplomas or periods of previous study).

b. Obstacles of an administrative and statutory nature (eg differences between the regulations applicable to scientists, which lead to difficulties in obtaining leave or the risk of career disruption; differences between social security and pension schemes).

c. Financial obstacles (eg the need to devise grants schemes for students and young research workers as a systematic contribution to international mobility).

d. Psychological and social obstacles (eg adaptability to different surroundings, language differences, schooling of children of scientists resident abroad, need for the scientist to maintain links with the home environment so that he may settle down again on his return).

e. Obstacles due to lack of information (eg need for the competent authorities to possess precise and comparable data about the demand for scientists and the movements of scientists, need for scientists to have full and consistent information on the possibilities and conditions of residing abroad, both as regards training and the exercise of a professional activity).

5. The geographical regions concerned

The work now in progress is being pursued in the Community context. It aims to facilitate and intensify mobility within the Communities and not to create obstacles to exchanges with outside countries, for which there is an obvious need.

6. Technological development

In a note submitted recently to the Council concerning the technological development of the Communities, the commission recommends that both general and selective measures for the promotion of mobility should be jointly studied and implemented.

The aims would be:

a. to inform scientists and users of the possibilities and conditions of mobility;

b. to create a pool of grants and aids for research workers and advanced university students;

c. to extend certain proposed co-operative projects to include considerations of mobility and education, the aims being to create international teams able to supplement the training received by scientists and communicate the knowledge required at human level.

III. The meeting of Ministers of Education on 16 November 1971

At the Conference of Heads of State and Government which took place at The Hague on 1 and 2 December 1969, educational problems were discussed in a Community context, although only very incidentally and superficially. In point 11 of the communiqué the heads of state and government reaffirmed their interest in the creation of a European university.

It might have been thought that this statement referred solely to the resumption of negotiations on the creation of a European university in Florence (1). In fact it seems that the concept of a European university as mentioned in the above communiqué should not be interpreted so narrowly, and that the intention, essentially, was to indicate that the European Community cannot in future afford to ignore the problems of education which are closely linked with its own development.

On the very eve of the Hague summit, the French Minister of Education had in fact described the general background against which educational problems on the Community level had to be seen. The Minister said: "It is ... paradoxical that at the very time when the nations of Europe are seeking to achieve unity and have made substantial progress in the economic sphere, and at a time when education has become a priority in every European country, the creation of a European educational community does not appear among the projects for whose implementation concrete plans and programmes could be devised ...

The creation of an educational community does not mean adding European institutions to national institutions, it means transforming the latter in accordance with common objectives, it means understanding that the educational development of European society needs to be defined in keeping with its economic development, and that if this development takes place within a given framework - in our case, that of the Six - the same should apply to the development of education ...

To achieve these aims, the Six must agree to work together andequip themselves with the proper machinery. I have proposed that they should together set up a European centre for the development of education as a permanent technical organ acting under the authority of the Committee of Ministers for Education. I have also said, and I repeat, that the United Kingdom ought to be associated with it."

It was the Belgian Government which suggested that a session of the Council of the European Communities should be attended by the Ministers for Education. In order to prepare for this session a group of senior officials competent in matters of national education was asked to draw up within the Committee of Permanent Representatives a report setting out schemes that might be adopted to promote Community co-operation in the educational field. It was in this framework that the delegations were invited to specify their aims.

The group of senior officials was presented with 3 schemes - a Belgian one, a German one and a French one.

The Belgian Government, taking into account the development of existing universities and the creation of new ones, considered that these measures, which were still strictly national in

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(1) On 28 March 1972 the Council of the European Communities signed a convention creating a European University Institute in Florence.

character, were not proving fully effective. The following is a short but significant extract from the Belgian document:

> "In densely populated countries like those constituting the European Community, national frontiers have often lost all meaning; they cross areas which are economically, and often culturally, homogeneous and whose poles of development virtually straddle national frontiers. The infusing of a supranational character into existing, and especially future, universities would achieve a twofold aim:
>
> a. both money and manpower would be saved;
>
> b. the development of a genuinely European mentality would be given practical impetus."

The Belgian plan enriched the concept of mobility in various ways, in particular because these supranational universities would:

- teach in various languages,
- recruit teachers from all Community countries;
- award diplomas which would be recognised as equivalent to national diplomas, and above all be recognised as legal qualifications.

The Government of the Federal Republic of Germany was in favour of closer co-operation in various matters concerning mobility, viz:

- mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates etc and of study courses attended in member states;
- a system of association between the various national universities in order to ensure mobility of students and teachers;
- an extension of the European school formula;
- collaboration between member states for the study and introduction of new teaching methods and the perfecting of technical teaching aids. (On this subject the German Government added: "The creation of a European centre might also be considered in this connection, as has already been proposed several times".)

The German Government made further proposals as regards institutions:

- a council of Ministers for Education within the Community would hold regular sessions;
- outside the sessions, a working party with special responsibility for educational questions would discuss these matters so as to ensure that all important aspects of the various fields of educational policy might be taken into consideration.

The French Government, noting that Article 57 of the Rome Treaty provided for the right of establishment for non-wage-earning occupations, entailing mutual recognition of diplomas, and in view of the current difficulties and slow rate of progress, proposed to overcome the problems by creating a new instrument with wide-ranging but clearly defined functions - a European education centre responsible for information, co-ordination and promotion.

Information: the initial aim would be to obtain a more detailed knowledge of European educational systems and to standardise the methods of enquiry. An information service designed to facilitate the mobility both of teachers and of pupils would advertise vacant posts for teachers, students and research workers.

Co-ordination: the centre would arrange for the mutual academic recognition of diplomas and try to make such recognition more general. The centre would also seek to identify the administrative and legal obstacles in the way of mobility. It would prepare the relevant decisions and secure their enforcement.

More generally, the centre should undertake to harmonise the conditions of admission to the various university courses or laboratories and to create or extend complementary action in the fields of education and research among the Six.

Promotion: the centre would give an impetus in certain carefully selected sectors vital to the future of education; standardisation of certain educational materials; establishment of plans for the production or co-production of audio-visual equipment; financial aid for educational research from Community funds; proposals and action in the sphere of permanent education

On completion of the preparatory work, the Conference of Ministers for Education met in Brussels on 16 November 1971. By a legal subtlety typical of European ministerial meetings, this conference formally decided to split itself into two:

- First, the Council of Ministers, a regular institution of the Community and on this occasion comprising the Ministers of Education, requested that the work and decisions on the mutual recognition of diplomas (Art. 57 of the Rome Treaty) should be speeded up. It also asked the commission to examine as quickly as possible, by means of a special working party in conjunction with higher education experts appointed by member governments, the question whether, in view of the need to speed up the effective implementation of the right of establishment, the more widespread mutual recognition of diplomas and other certificates issued in member states might possibly be fostered.

- Then the Ministers for Education, sitting as "representatives of the member states meeting within the council", considered the problem of activating European co-operation in the educational field. They declared themselves willing to examine whether the creation of a European centre for the development of education was necessary and accordingly decided:

  1. to set up a group of experts with which the commission would be associated and whose task would be:

     a. to examine
        - what tasks might be entrusted to a European centre for the development of education, taking into account the collaboration and activities already carried out in other organisations;
        - how this centre might be organised, run and financed;
        - what its relations with the European Communities and the legal bases of the proposed educational co-operation might be;

     b. also to suggest other ways of establishing active co-operation in the field of national education.

  2. that the group would be required to report as soon as possible on the results of its work to the Ministers for Education, representing the member states meeting within the Council, in accordance with normal practice.

Lastly, the Council decided to postpone examination of the proposal by the Belgian Government for the creation of supranational higher education establishments.

The group of experts appointed by a decision of the Ministers for Education held several meetings in 1972. They considered at length the institutional problem of establishing the centre (relations with the Communities, methods of financing etc). So far the French delegation has apparently expressed itself in favour of the creation of an institution which would not form an integral part of the Communities but would be covered by a special intergovernmental agreement. The other delegations, on the contrary, have urged that the centre should form part of the regular Community institutions, although they seek a certain flexibility for the implementation of this project, which is a completely new one for the Brussels institutions.

The Ministers for Education may meet again in the first quarter of 1973.

PART III

NATIONAL POLICIES

An examination of national policies reveals the role and influence of many elements (public authorities, universities and research centres, non-governmental organisations, teachers and research workers) all of which combine to give the theme of mobility a different character and flavour in each country, and even as between a country's various sectors.

Mobility develops under the dual impetus of the action taken by the state and universities and other institutions vis-à-vis foreign countries and action of a purely domestic kind.

It is therefore necessary to consider:

Chapter I - international Agreements
Chapter II - internal policies.

CHAPTER I

INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENTS

The member states of the Council of Europe are involved in 166 bilateral agreements with all countries of the European continent to facilitate the intra-European mobility of scientific workers. 97 of these 166 agreements have been concluded between member states of the Council of Europe themselves. Among the agreements for cultural, scientific and technical co-operation there consequently exists a large number of bilateral arrangements designed to foster mobility (see table on page 47).

According to a UNESCO document (1): "These bilateral links for the direct or indirect encouragement of mobility among scientists in Europe can be grouped in 5 categories:

1. Bilateral agreements on the exchange of trainees

These agreements do not relate solely to the exchange of scientists - the trainees exchanged are not always scientific workers but may also come from other sectors.

2. General bilateral agreements on economic, scientific and cultural co-operation containing special clauses designed to encourage the exchange of scientists

These agreements do not specify either the volume or the forms of exchanges, but they may serve as a framework for an agreement or practical programme for the exchange of scientific staff.

3. Bilateral scientific and technical co-operation agreements, providing for exchanges of scientists in a concrete way, often specifying numbers and sometimes defining the fields in which these exchanges are to take place

Such agreements, which are generally followed by a protocol specifying the volume and field of the exchanges, are of 2 types:

- for an indefinite or renewable 5-year period. This type of bilateral agreement is indicative of a relatively stable relationship between countries and permits a certain continuity and planning in exchanges of scientists;

- for a definite period (1, 2, 3 years, not renewable) which may nevertheless be extended, but only through the conclusion of a new agreement. This is not an agreement but a practical programme covering a fixed period. This type of arrangement marks the beginning of scientific and technical relations between countries and may constitute a first step towards the conclusion of a permanent or long-term agreement.

List as at 1 June 1970 of bilateral agreements and arrangements concluded by member states of the Council of Europe, promoting the European mobility of scientific workers. The agreements are those currently in force; their duration is generally between 2 and 5 years, though some are concluded for an indefinite period.

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(1) La mobilité intra-européene des travailleurs scientifiques (The intra-European mobility of scientific workers) S.C./WS/92 - 1 June 1970
NB: This quotation is an unofficial English translation of the French original.

Austria

9 agreements with Belgium, Bulgaria, France, Italy, Norway, Poland, Romania, United Kingdom, USSR.

Belgium

19 agreements with Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Spain, Turkey, United Kingdom, USSR, Yugoslavia.

Cyprus

2 agreements with Czechoslovakia and France.

Denmark

8 agreements with Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, France, Italy, Poland, Romania, USSR.

France

23 agreements with Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Spain, Turkey, United Kingdom, USSR, Yugoslavia.

Federal Republic of Germany

9 agreements with Belgium, France, Greece, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Turkey and United Kingdom.

Iceland

1 agreement with the USSR.

Ireland

2 agreements with France and Norway.

Italy

20 agreements with Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Hungary, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Spain, Turkey, United Kingdom, USSR, Yugoslavia.

Luxembourg

5 agreements with Belgium, France, Italy, Netherlands, United Kingdom.

Malta

2 agreements with France and Italy.

Netherlands

14 agreements with Belgium, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, Norway, Poland, Romania, Turkey, United Kingdom, USSR, Yugoslavia.

Norway

17 agreements with Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Spain, Turkey, United Kingdom, USSR, Yugoslavia.

Sweden

5 agreements with Bulgaria, Finland, Hungary, Poland, Romania.

Switzerland

3 agreements with France, Sweden, United Kingdom.

Turkey

10 agreements with Belgium, Finland, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Spain, United Kingdom.

United Kingdom

17 agreements with Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, France, Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Romania, Spain, Turkey, USSR, Yugoslavia.

4. Bilateral agreements between research institutes, universities, national research centres and educational regions in 2 countries

These agreements sometimes stem from a general agreement on scientific and technical co-operation and constitute a concrete instrument of mobility. This type of arrangement has the advantage of involving the scientific research institutions directly.

5. Agreements relating to a specific programme or project

As an instrument of mobility, this type of agreement has the same advantage as the one above, of creating and strengthening ties between scientists in the same or related branches by enabling them to work together for a certain period of time.

CHAPTER II

INTERNAL POLICIES

The analysis of internal policies will take the form of national monographs. To our great regret the monographs cover 11 countries only: the research should be extended to other countries which we have not been able to investigate for lack of time and resources. In a subject which is evolving as rapidly as this, and in view of the wide national divergences, these monographs are a hazardous enterprise. We would therefore appeal to the reader, not for his indulgence but for his critical and constructive collaboration so that this study may be subsequently improved.

The monographs relate to the following countries:

I. AUSTRIA

II. BELGIUM

III. FRANCE

IV. FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

V. ITALY

VI. NETHERLANDS

VII. UNITED KINGDOM

The analysis of the Nordic countries united in the Nordic Labour Market is preceded by a special introduction (VIII), which explains why we have grouped these countries outside the alphabetical order used previously:

IX. DENMARK

X. FINLAND

XI. NORWAY

XII. SWEDEN

Section I

AUSTRIA

I. Structure and status

The university structure and the status of teachers and research workers in Austria are very similar to those in the Federal Republic of Germany. Although higher education establishments in Austria have administrative independence, however, under the law on the organisation of universities (Hochschulorganisationsgesetz 1955) they come directly under the Federal Ministry of Education for all other matters. In particular, they have no financial autonomy.

There are no private higher education establishments in Austria.

A teaching career starts as follows:

1. Students are often given special responsibilities in their final years.

This is the case with "Demonstrators" who are auxiliary members of the teaching staff and whose duties are temporary.

The "wissenschaftliche Hilfskräfte" are attached to a professor, the head of a teaching hospital or the director of an institute. They are engaged under one-year, renewable contracts. These are often part-time posts which enable the student to continue studying.

In 1958-59 these student assistants made up about 1/4 of the teaching staff in Austria. Fortunately, this proportion has since declined. In 1966-67 they represented 14%.

2. It is at the "Assistent" level that students start to belong to the university staff proper. Assistants must be students in the "third cycle" or graduates.

The "Hochschulassistenten" lecture only in exceptional cases. They carry out practical work and assist directors of sections or hospital directors in teaching, research and administration.

They must be given enough spare time to prepare for their examinations.

The "Hochschullektoren", who are mainly employed in teaching languages, may give lectures and direct practical work.

3. In order to become a lecturer or "Hochschuldozent", one must possess a doctorate or have done research on the basis of which, via the "Habilitation" procedure, the venia docendi or right to teach is conferred.

The "Hochschuldozent" is an official like the "Oberassistent" who has been promoted to this grade after several years as a "Hochschulassistent".

4. A "Hochschuldozent" who has been teaching for several years and done distinguished research may be appointed "Hochschulprofessor".

The professors are civil servants.

The "Ordentliche Hochschulprofessoren" or "Ordinarien" are holders of a chair and are often heads of an institute or teaching hospital.

The "Ordinarius" has the privilege of holding the venia docendi. The curricula, however, are laid down by the Ministry of Education.

He must retire at the age of 70 at the latest.

The "Ausserordentliche Hochschulprofessoren" or "Extraordinarien" have the same privileges as ordinary professors but are lower in the salary scale. They are holders of a Chair or heads of an institute and generally teach in a secondary subject or one recently introduced.

Full-time professors are appointed for life and are irremovable. They enjoy academic freedom as do teachers of all grades. Professors in Austria enjoy great prestige. Many of them are official experts.

5. In the regulations governing the teaching profession, no distinction is made between the right to examine and the right to teach.

II. Recruitment and appointment

1. Teachers are thus usually recruited within the university and other higher education establishments.

There is strong competition from industry, for financial resources are inadequate. It sometimes takes a long time to find a suitable candidate for a vacant post.

Recruitment starts at Assistent level, and professors are normally recruited from among the Hochschuldozenten.

2. The "Habilitation" procedure leading to the award of the venia docendi appears to be less rigid than that prior to the reform in the Federal Republic of Germany. It is governed by the Habilitationsnorm (Habilitation code) of 1955. The candidate must carry out post-doctorate research work and deliver a lecture before the panel of professors.

3. Appointment

- Assistants are appointed by the Federal Ministry of Education on the proposal of a professor and with the approval of the relevant faculty or institute.
- Hochschuldozenten and professors are appointed by the President of the Federal Republic on the proposal of the faculty or school concerned and by agreement with the Federal Ministry of Education

These procedures are laid down in public law regulations with all the rigidity which that entails. This could be a disadvantage for Austria, which would no doubt wish to attract foreign teachers if the financial problems could be solved.

III. Inward mobility

1. The nationality requirement for Austrian civil servants applies to teachers who are civil servants.

For appointments to professorial Chairs, however, a foreigner may satisfy the nationality requirement by being granted dual nationality.

There are also possibilities of recruitment by contract.

2. Although no posts are specifically reserved for foreigners, posts do exist, as in Germany, which are more readily accessible to people from industry or from abroad.

a. First, a Gastdozent or Gastprofessor is a lecturer or professor from another university (in Austria or abroad) who is invited to give a series of lectures over a specified period.

A "Gastvortragender" is a visiting lecturer or professor invited to give a single lecture.

b. The "Honorarprofessor" is a scholar from outside the university who may be given the right to teach in it.

c. The "Lehrbeauftragter" may give lectures or tuition, although he does not possess the venia docendi, when the academic authorities need the help of an expert.

Although in theory the Austrian universities may invite any foreign professor, in practice only Germans or German Swiss are invited because of the language factor. A Chair of cardiology in Vienna is held by a German-speaking Czech.

3. A new law on studies, the "Allgemeines Hochschulstudiengesetz", has just been adopted (Federal Gazette, no. 117/1966). One of its aims is to facilitate the free movement of students from one higher education establishment to another. It will clearly affect the mobility of teachers and research workers between universities.

The law makes the mobility of teachers legally possible. In most cases, however, the formal approval of the Federal Ministry of Science and Research is required.

4. With regard to information, vacant posts at the national level are often advertised. This is mandatory in the case of the "Hochschule für Bildungswissenschaften" at Klagenfurt. Special publications used for this purpose are:

- the official "Wiener Zeitung"
- and 2 university newspapers: "Österreichische Hochschulzeitung" and "IBF".

5. The rights of foreign teachers or teachers appointed from outside.

In many fields experts may sit on examining boards without having formal teaching qualifications. This is the case in law and pharmacy.

6. University budgets do not provide for specific appropriations for the reception of foreign teachers. Special funds do exist, however, which may be used for this purpose.

IV. Outward mobility

1. The obstacles

Austria is sometimes short of qualified teachers and would find it difficult to replace those invited abroad.

In order to deter young teachers from the temptation to go abroad, "personal" Chairs have recently been created. This practice, which is new to present-day Austrian "Hochschulrecht", existed in the universities in the past.

Austrian teachers and research workers who take up a permanent post abroad may lose their nationality unless they have a special permit from the competent authorities.

2. The countries concerned

As stated above, Germany is the country most commonly involved because of the language problem.

3. The procedures

Teachers or research workers wishing to go abroad must obtain permission from the Ministry. This is specified in the legal provisions governing residence abroad as laid down in the legislation on the civil service.

Authorisation also depends on finding a replacement.

V. Social and professional rights and mobility

1. Austrian teachers have strong motives for favouring international mobility because salaries offered abroad are higher and working conditions are better.

The fact is that the funds allocated to higher education are rather slender. Teachers are only partly remunerated from state funds. The balance of their income is made up by fees paid by the students (examination fees, course fees and diploma fees).

Thus, a teacher wishing to go abroad on his own initiative, without being invited by another country, would encounter considerable financial difficulties.

It is reported, however, that the brain drain which reached disquieting proportions some years ago is now declining. This is apparently due to the policy of improving the status of university staff, and in particular to increased salaries.

2. All teachers are insured under the central social insurance institution for civil servants.

3. Special funds are available to the Ministry for travelling and other expenses of teachers wishing to spend a short period abroad.

VI. National bodies contributing towards mobility

1. Oesterreichische Rektorenkonferenz

This is the Conference of Rectors which examines problems relating to higher education.

2. Notring der Wissenschaftlichen Verbände Österreichs

The purpose of this group is to bring the various Austrian scientific associations together in order to promote the organisation of their work on a broader basis.

3. Österreichisches Komitee für internationalen Studienaustausch

The purpose of the Austrian Committee for International Educational Exchanges is to encourage international co-operation on all matters relating to higher education and students, in particular by promoting teacher exchanges.

Section II

BELGIUM

I. Structure and status

1. Universities and other higher education establishments

a. There are 2 kinds of university in Belgium:

- state universities (Ghent, Liège, Mons and the University Centre of Antwerp)
- and the 2 independent universities: the Catholic University of Louvain and the Free University of Brussels.

These latter 2 universities decided recently to split in 2 as a result of the language problem.

The independent universities are private institutions, run by their own administrative councils without state intervention. The structure of the teaching staff in these universities, however, is generally similar to that of state universities.

b. Non-university higher education establishments are institutions of higher technical education.

c. Lastly, there are various institutions which have either the status of a university and may award university diplomas or are authorised to grant what are called "scientific" diplomas.

The legislation on higher education in Belgium makes a distinction between "university legal diplomas" and "scientific diplomas". This distinction creates barriers between the universities and other institutions.

A bill on the award of academic degrees abolishes the distinction between legal degrees and scientific degrees and aims to harmonise and unify scientific studies.

2. The structure and status of the teaching staff

As in other countries such as Austria or France, there are postgraduate students who perform teaching duties without being incorporated in the university hierarchy. These are called "moniteurs" or "élèves assistants", and receive an allowance to tutor students.

a. The first grade in the hierarchy is that of the assistant. These deputise for the established lecturers and assist them in their practical teaching. In theory they should already possess their doctorate. They are appointed for 2 years and this period is twice renewable. After this period they are appointed permanent assistant or chef de travaux.

A distinction is made between category 1, full-time assistants and category 2, part-time assistants.

There also exist "voluntary assistants" who act as unpaid assistants to a professor in order to prepare for their doctorate or agrégation.

At Louvain a person who is in charge of elementary classes or who participates in research work is called an "assistant chargé d'enseignement".

"Research workers" are young scientists temporarily employed in a university research centre. They receive the same salary as an assistant.

Particularly deserving assistants may be awarded the title of "chef de travaux à titre personnel".

b. "Chefs de travaux", generally assistants who have held that post for at least 2 years, are permanent. The title covers posts of different grades. Chefs de travaux are not chargés de cours but they may nevertheless deputise for a professor. Their duties are generally to organise practical and research work under the responsibility of a professor. They may supervise examinations if the need arises.

Assistants and chefs de travaux are not part of the academic staff. They may become so established in 2 ways:

- by becoming a chargé de cours associé and then possibly be appointed professeur associé, or
- by applying for a vacant post and becoming a professeur ordinaire or professor extraordinaire or a chargé de cours.

c. Chargés de cours associés are not holders of a Chair. They are attached to a professor, either ordinaire or extraordinaire, and may be given responsibility for part of his teaching under his instructions.

After 6 years they may be promoted to the rank of professeur associé. In this case they remain subordinate to the holder of the Chair but receive a higher salary.

d. The chargé de cours has independent teaching authority but does not hold a Chair. He has the same teaching and research functions as professeur ordinaire, but not the same responsibilities. He is not involved in the running or management of the university.

e. Lastly, the professors:

The same distinction as in many other countries is made between:

- "professeurs extraordinaires" who are part-time holders of a Chair in state universities, and
- "professeurs ordinaires" who are full-time holders of a Chair. They are responsible for teaching, examinations and research in their subject. They sit on the council of the faculty or school. They may be appointed directly to this post even if they did not previously belong to the teaching staff.

II. Recruitment and appointment

1. The teaching staff comprises chargés de cours associés, chargés de cours and professeurs associés, whose salary is much lower than that of professeurs extraordinaires and professeurs ordinaires.

In order to become teachers, candidates must have a doctorate or the qualification of agrégé pour l'enseignement supérieur, although legally no priority is given to those possessing the agrégation.

Persons outside the university have the same right to apply for a vacant post as teachers who already hold a post in a university. The agrégation procedure is thus far less rigid and malthusian than that existing in France or Germany, as it does not constitute the only means of access to a Chair-holding post.

2. Agrégation procedure

Under the terms of the Act on the award of academic degrees of February 1963, the examination for the agrége degree in higher education comprises:

a. the presentation of a printed dissertation, which must be an original work constituting a contribution to the progress of science, and 3 additional theses or questions. The candidates are free to choose the subjects of the dissertation and additional theses or questions;

b. defence, before the board, of the dissertation and additional theses or questions;

c. an oral lesson on a subject selected by the board.

To be admitted, candidates must have possessed for at least 2 years the corresponding degree of doctor of philosophy and letters, law, science, medicine, surgery and obstetrics, veterinary medicine or a degree in the profession of notary, dentistry, pharmacy, civil engineering, agricultural engineering or chemical engineering and agricultural industries.

Thus the agrégation is the highest degree in all disciplines. It is not a competitive examination which, like the agrégation in France or the Habilitation in Germany, confers the right to a post. An agrégé in higher education in Belgium may very well not be appointed holder of a Chair, at least for a certain time. He may, for instance, and without any reflection on his personal merits, be appointed chargé de cours à titre personnel or chargé de cours.

3. Appointment procedures

Assistants are appointed by the university's administrative council for 2 years, the appointment being renewable.

The chefs de travaux and other teaching staff are appointed on a permanent basis by the Crown on a recommendation of the administrative council after consulting the faculty concerned.

III. Inward mobility

1. The nationality requirement does not exist in Belgium at any level in the teaching and research hierarchy. The law authorises the appointment of a foreign teacher to a Belgian university (1). The only condition, under the Act of 28 April 1953, is that a person may not be appointed a member of the teaching staff unless he holds a degree of doctor, engineer or agrégé of higher education. Even this requirement may be waived in certain circumstances (2).

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(1) Act of 28 April 1953, Art. 62: "When the interests of public education so require, the King may, in accordance with the present Act, appoint foreigners of outstanding ability as professeur ordinaire or professeur extraordinaire (professeur, chargé de cours, professeur associé or chargé de cours associé). For the same reason, foreigners may be asked to take up the post of agrégé or répétiteur or a scientific post."

(2) Art. 22, para 2: "Exemptions from the possession of a diploma may, after consultation with the faculty normally responsible for the teaching of the subjects covered by the course, be granted by the King to persons who have shown exceptional academic merit".

Lastly, it will be noted that, as is explained by Mr R van Swieten, government commissioner to the State University of Mons, while the nationality condition can be waived under the 1953 Act only in the case of foreigners of "outstanding ability", this term should be interpreted in a very broad sense.

2. Posts reserved for persons outside the university

a. In Belgium, some university Chairs are reserved exclusively for foreigners. The University of Louvain, for instance, has 3 such Chairs, 2 of which are for permanent appointments and the third for 2-year appointments. This is characteristic of the spirit prevailing at Louvain University, which is deliberately outward-looking and is one of the universities which has the most contacts with foreign universities and countries in the third world.

b. The texts also define the status of teachers coming from outside:

- the "maître de conférences" is a person not on the teaching staff whom the administrative council has temporarily authorised to deliver a course of lectures;
- the "professeur agréé" is a title which may be given to teachers from other universities who are invited to give courses in a faculty;
- the "professeur visiteur" is a foreigner who comes to teach for a specific period. Appointment is made by the academic authorities on the recommendation of the faculty.

3. Financial assistance

There is no system of direct assistance to teaching and research bodies wishing to employ foreign teachers or research workers.

Assistance is granted indirectly in as much as these establishments are authorised to set aside part of their state-subsidised budgets for the recruitment of foreigners.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry for External Trade and the Office of Development Co-operation offer numerous study and research grants, especially to students from the third world.

4. Information

Some universities circulate their curricula and research programmes abroad through the Belgian diplomatic service.

The International Cultural Relations Department in Brussels issues a publication on the possibilities of studying in Belgium.

IV. Outward mobility

1. The countries concerned

Mobility is more developed with France and the Netherlands for language reasons.

Certain universities such as Louvain, however, have a well established tradition of international contacts. Mobility to and from the United States is fairly widespread in these universities. With regard to students, an interesting study has been carried out which reveals that many American students are enrolled at the Catholic University of Louvain. These students are

thereby enabled to receive free instruction, whereas education in the United States is very expensive American grants are paid to the university towards the study costs of these students, but the final breakdown shows a very definite financial profit for the United States. The figures on 1 January 1968 for the Catholic University of Louvain were as follows:

	French system	Dutch system	Total
Belgians	9,219	11,702	20,921
Foreigners	2,291	279	2,570
Total	11,510	11,981	23,491

(Although these figures relate to students, they are relevant to this study in as much as assistants who do not belong to the teaching staff are in the same position as postgraduate students where mobility is concerned.)

Of the total of 2,570 foreigners, 291 come from Common Market countries, 312 from other west European countries, 414 from the United States and 423 from South America. It is interesting to note that the language factor plays a major part here, since nearly 10 times as many students attend the French-language part of the university as are enrolled in the Dutch-language part.

2. Legal conditions of mobility towards foreign countries

As with other countries, a distinction must be made here between authorisations to work abroad for short, medium and long periods.

The possibilities of short-term departures present no difficulties for established scientists and teachers. They may also obtain permission to leave for longer periods - 2 to 24 months. Sometimes their salaries are maintained.

Scientists under contract of employment, however, generally forgo their salaries.

V. Social and professional rights and mobility

1. Promotion and salary increment rights are lost in the case of civil servants when salary is suspended. This applies nearly always to scientists under contract.

2. Pension and social security rights, however, are invariably maintained for established civil servants, even if they are on unpaid leave or unattached. Scientists under contract lose their pension and social security rights if their salary is suspended.

VI. National bodies contributing towards mobility

1. The Conference of Rectors of Belgian Universities (meeting of rectors of the 4 universities) examines all questions arising from the participation of the universities in organs of international university co-operation.

2. The University Foundation, an establishment created in the public interest by the Act of 6 July 1920 and whose aim is the advancement of science.

It awards grants to postgraduate students to enable them to complete their training in scientific establishments abroad.

3. The Francqui Foundation, an establishment serving the public interest whose purpose is to further the development of higher education and research. Every year it invites 2 foreign and 2 Belgian scholars to deliver a course of lectures in Belgium. These are the "Francqui Chairs".

4. The National Fund for Scientific Research, an establishment serving the public interest and designed to encourage scientific research, awards grants to enable Belgian research workers to attend conferences abroad.

Section III

FRANCE

In France, the system of state universities predominates. True, there do exist independent universities of a denominational or lay character, but these are not entitled to award academic degrees. Only the public universities may award them. The result is that independent higher education in France has not greatly expanded through the medium of university structures. It has found it easier to do so by means of the Grandes Ecoles. The French university system thus consists essentially of public establishments financed by state funds and governed by laws and regulations both as regards the status of their staff and as regards the curricula and examination procedures and the prerogatives attached to national diplomas. They make up an extremely coherent and centralised whole which has hardly been affected by the 1968 reform.

The Act of 12 November 1968 on the orientation of higher education was mainly designed to reorganise the public university establishments by introducing the principles of autonomy and participation.

The Act in question created a number of new institutions:

- basically, the universities consist of "unités d'enseignement et de recherche" (UER, or teaching and research units);
- at the regional level, there are regional higher education and research councils;
- at the national level, there is a national higher education and research council.

Autonomy and participation are the 2 key words underlying the provisions of this Act.

As far as participation is concerned, the innovation lies in the extension of the right of participation to new grades of staff. Before May-June 1968 the powers granted to the faculties were exercised by professors and maîtres de conférences. The chargés de cours attended meetings, but their status was too precarious for them to exert any influence. The other teaching grades: maître assistant, assistant, chargé de travaux pratiques and moniteur as well as the students were not really associated with anything. There was, however, a "Capitant regulation" of 1945 under which students' representatives were permitted to be represented in certain faculty organs. This regulation was quickly forgotten and has remained a dead letter.

The right of participation granted to lower grade staff by this Act is limited: pressure exerted by conservative professors' associations has resulted in their enjoying a legal guarantee that they will remain in the majority in the collegiate body of teachers. 60% of the seats are reserved for them as well as - unless a ministerial decision is taken to the contrary - eligibility for the most important functions such as that of president of the university. Another restriction on free participation derives from the precarious status of certain junior teachers and their consequent insecurity.

Above all, public attention has been drawn to the legal right of participation enjoyed by students: they have equal representation on university councils with all grades of teacher. Elections are held for each "cycle" or year of study. The conservative elements succeeded in introducing into the Act a provision (now repealed) limiting student representation when a quorum of 60% of the students enrolled was not reached. Neither students nor assistants may be elected directors of UER, nor, a fortiori, president of the university. They do not take part in the discussions on the teacher recruitment and careers, nor in the scientific councils which decide on research programmes and allocation of the corresponding funds.

Representatives of the administrative staff of the university and persons from various cultural, economic and social circles are also represented on the councils.

For senior staff, the right of participation has in fact led to a lesser degree of personal participation, since they are represented by some of their number instead of all being present as was formerly the case.

The second principle on which the Act was based was that of autonomy. If this autonomy were to be effective it would definitely help to promote international university co-operation and the mobility of teachers and research workers. The Act does in fact try to give the universities more responsibilities of their own by breaking with the traditional centralisation. It makes the universities less dependent on the central administrations (especially the Ministries of Education and Finance) in 3 respects: administrative, educational and budgetary. It should be noted, incidentally, that Article 2 of the Act appears to confer a certain international autonomy on the universities.

a. Administrative decentralisation: the UERs and the universities have been empowered to draw up their own regulations and manage their own affairs through their representatives. This is the spectacular aspect of the reform (the new institution of university presidents is particularly noteworthy). Just as important, however, though less conspicuous, is the question of administrative autonomy in everyday practice: no doubt the UERs and universities today have more administrative powers than faculties used to have, but are they not constantly required, as in the past, to justify their actions in piecemeal and pernickety fashion to the central administration? The question is a pertinent one.

b. Educational decentralisation: Article 19 of the Act empowers the universities and UERs to decide their own teaching and research activities, their educational methods, examination procedures etc. This provision, which is not very clear on the allocation of functions as between universities and UERs has nevertheless some significance in respect of the new prerogatives which it confers on these institutions in general. This autonomy, however, remains limited in scope because under Article 20 the national character of diplomas and the legal qualification they confer is maintained. Genuine educational autonomy is obviously bound up with the responsibility of universities as regards the degrees and diplomas they award: here the national character and the legal qualification, closely interwoven as they are with French administrative structures and the professional regulations, remain as sacred cows to hamper the achievement of educational autonomy. This restriction will patently hinder efforts to introduce a range of curricula and study courses. Lastly, the maintenance of legal and national qualifications will certainly not further the development of permanent education as a university activity. Human mobility and advancement will thus be hamstrung.

c. Budgetary decentralisation: it is more appropriate to speak of budgetary decentralisation than of autonomy. Budgetary decentralisation involves 2 rights:

- the right to obtain income from various different sources,
- the right to decide how to distribute the resources obtained.

The first right, which is authorised by law, is today non-existent: the universities receive the bulk of their finance from the state. The local authorities are powerless to give the universities adequate additional funds; there are, moreover, hardly any foundations in France which could claim a financial role in this connection, except perhaps where management problems are concerned. In the research field, however, some particularly active universities manage to obtain up to 30 or 50% of their extra income from contracts with private industry.

The right to organise expenditure is itself limited by the regulations on public accountancy, salaries, status etc. The true innovation lies in the abolition of control over the incurring of expenditure and the introduction of a more flexible a posteriori financial control.

d. International autonomy of universities

When preparing the Act on the orientation of higher education, Mr E Faure, the Minister for Education, stated: "I should like to see a kind of European university federation which would be wide open to countries other than those of the Common Market. By extending our university contacts, we could obtain results which would enable us to catch up with the United States and to some extent the Soviet Union." It was in this spirit that Article 2 of the Act was drafted. This article opened up new horizons for the universities by increasing their international responsibilities and giving them a new autonomy. It reads: "Within the framework defined by the public authorities, the universities shall take the necessary steps to organise and develop international university co-operation, particularly with partly or wholly French-language universities. Special links must be established with the universities of member states of the European Economic Community."

An order of 28 February 1972 lays down the framework in which the French universities are to promote international university co-operation. This text points out firstly the conditions of general law with which the universities must comply when acting to further international university co-operation. Thus the universities remain subject, firstly, to international law, particularly in respect of the sovereignty of the French state which possesses sole authority in relations with other countries and international organisations. Secondly, they remain subject to the domestic laws and regulations.

Further, the French laws and regulations which govern relations between French and foreign physical or legal persons also apply to the universities' international activities.

The text goes on to specify that in the field of international activities, as in other fields, it is up to the universities to determine their priorities according to the means at their disposal; this provision implicitly precludes the idea put forward at one time that a special fund or appropriation should be opened to support the international activities of universities.

Lastly, the text defines very precisely the state's powers of control in this respect; in particular, no agreement may be concluded between a French university and a foreign university or foreign university body without the Minister for Education, who will consult the Minister for Foreign Affairs or the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, having been informed so that the right of veto may if necessary be exercised in whole or in part.

These implementing regulations, of which we know no equivalent in other countries, do not appear to have facilitated or extended in any way the possibilities of international co-operation open to French universities. It would be interesting to know the opinion of the French Conference of University Presidents on the value of such a text.

I. Structure and status

The status of teachers and research workers differs widely according to whether they belong to the higher grades of national education personnel or to other categories.

Teachers and research workers in the higher grades normally have the status of civil servants with all the attendant guarantees and benefits. These are professors, maîtres de conférences, maîtres assistants, established chefs de travaux and established assistants, and their counterparts in public educational or research establishments other than universities: the "Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique" (National Centre for Scientific Research), the "Collège de France" (College of France), the "Observatoire de Paris" (Paris Observatory), the "Instituts de Physique du Globe" (Institutes of Global Physics), the "Ecoles Normales Supérieures" (Teacher Training Colleges), the "Musée National d'Histoire Naturelle" (National Museum of Natural History), the "Ecole Pratique des Hautes Etudes" (School of Applied Higher Studies), the "Ecole Nationale des Langues Orientales vivantes" (National School of Modern Oriental Languages) and the "Ecole des Chartes" (School of Palaeography and Librarianship).

The other categories of teaching staff, non-established assistants, chargés de travaux dirigés, chargés de cours ou d'enseignement, moniteurs or postgraduate students recruited temporarily or for a specific task do not normally have any official status and thus enjoy fewer safeguards than persons in the above categories.

A distinction will thus be made between established teachers and auxiliary teachers or those under contract. Established university teachers are civil servants - that is, under Article 1 of the general regulations on the civil service, "persons who, having been appointed to a permanent post, have been placed on the establishment in a grade of the staff scale of the central state administrations, the external services attached thereto or the public establishments of the state". The definition of a civil servant thus comprises 2 main elements: first, the permanence of the post and its occupation, which is a priori a drawback to mobility, and secondly, integration in the administrative hierarchy, that is, the incorporation of the official into a establishment class or corps. The classes comprise civil servants who are subject to the same special regulations and destined for the same grades. The class is thus defined by specific rules which cut it off from other classes and make it very difficult to pass from one to another. Thus the career is so to speak marked out in advance, subject to promotion by selection. The situation tends to create rigidity and hardly encourages mobility.

Established teachers are:

a. Maîtres de conférences in arts and science faculties and maîtres de conférences agrégés in faculties of law, medicine and pharmacy. They are appointed by ministerial order and their functions are identical to those of professors.

b. Professeurs titulaires and professeurs sans chaise; they are appointed by order of the President of the Republic after consultation with the university council and the consultative committee.

Professors and maîtres de conférences are regarded as being of senior rank and enjoy all the prerogatives of teachers in higher education; they constitute list "A" for elections to the boards which run the universities and UERs. Professor posts have in fact been placed in higher salary scales, and these posts serve for the financial advancement of maîtres de conférences who, like professors, enjoy stability of employment and usually complete academic and pedagogic independence.

Maîtres assistants are a recently constituted class thanks to which a certain standardisation has been introduced among teaching staff in the various faculties. The maîtres assistants class has often replaced the chefs de travaux class which is fast disappearing, except in university hospital centres where the teaching staff has special status since it exercises both hospital and university duties.

The status of maîtres assistants of the various faculties nevertheless varies according to the discipline, and they are subject to different regulations (1).

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(1) For science and arts: Order 60-1027 of 26.9.60. For law and economics: Orders 62-114 of 27.1.62 and 63-212 of 22.2.63.
For pharmacy: Order 69-526 of 2.6.69.

Maîtres assistants constitute list "B" for elections to the UER and university council. The maîtres assistants class, according to the various regulations themselves, is incorporated in the staff structure by provisions which run as follows: "Under the responsibility of professors and maîtres de conférences, maîtres assistants supervise the work of assistants, chargés de travaux pratiques, moniteurs and students in small groups."

Teachers move up from the maîtres assistants class to the maîtres de conférences class by being placed on the listes d'aptitude for the functions of maîtres de conférences and by being appointed to this post by a university (1).

Established assistants are employed mainly in faculties of science and arts.

Some of them, especially in the arts faculties, are agrégés of secondary education. Their situation is then one of secondment from the class of teachers in secondary education. They continue to enjoy their promotion rights in this class and the corresponding pension rights. On the other hand it is the faculty to which they are seconded which reports on their work. As the decision on the secondment of these teachers can be revoked at any time, however, their freedom is limited by the fact that they are, so to speak, "on probation".

Non-established teachers fall into the following categories:

- chargés d'enseignement and deputy maîtres de conférences. In the UERs of law and economics, chargés d'enseignement are usually persons outside the university;
- chargés de cours who are staff under contract recruited amually to act as maîtres de conférences;
- chefs de travaux, a class which is becoming extinct;
- assistants;
- moniteurs.

These staff members are recruited either by contract or as auxiliaries. They usually receive a regular salary. However, chargés d'enseignement and chargés de travaux dirigés, who are seconded from other sectors of activity are paid a fee.

II. Recruitment and appointment

1. Assistants

The procedures for appointing assistants have always varied widely because there are no regulations applicable to them, and personal recommendation has played a large part. As a result of the pressure exerted by those concerned and the constant increase in the number and influence of assistants in universities, however, the recruitment procedures are now being simplified and standardised. Thus assistants at UERs of law and economics are nowadays recruited, at least in the universities in and around Paris, by means of a proficiency test. These assistants are appointed by the rector on the recommendation of the university president for one year. In theory, no one may remain an assistant for more than 5 consecutive years. In the arts faculties, agrégés of secondary education who are not appointed maîtres assistants within this period must normally

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(1) See particularly Order 71-549 of 8 July 1971.

be returned to the teaching body from which they came. In faculties of law and economics, assistants who have not completed their thesis and been appointed maître assistant after 5 years should in principle seek another appointment.

2. Maîtres assistants

Maîtres assistants are appointed as trainees and then selected for permanent establishment by the Minister of Education from among the candidates on a liste d'aptitude drawn up on the recommendation of the competent division of the universities consultative committee.

3. Maîtres de conférences in science and arts faculties are co-opted by the university teachers on list "A" from among those holding doctorates. Appointment as maître de conférences in the arts requires much patience, because it is considered normal for those aspiring to this post to spend 5 to 10 years or even longer writing a good thesis. This means that the average age of maîtres de conférences in arts faculties is higher than that of their colleagues in other subjects. It also means that their interest in mobility may well be stifled in many cases.

4. Maîtres de conférences agrégés in faculties of law and economics, medicine and pharmacy are appointed by ministerial order on the recommendation of an agrégation board.

5. Professors are appointed from among the maîtres de conférences by order of the President of the Republic after consultation with the faculty board and the consultative committee. This appointment is the normal sequel to the career of a maître de conférences.

III. Inward mobility

Normally, only French nationals may be recruited as civil servants. It is nevertheless possible for foreigners to teach in universities as associate teachers or lecteurs. A recent regulation enables foreign teachers to become established staff.

1. Associate teachers

The rank of associate professor is a fairly recent innovation brought about by Orders 55-47 of 5 January 1955 and 56-494 of 14 May 1956. These texts stated that associate faculty teachers might be engaged under contract in order to contribute to the advancement of scientific research. They were to be appointed by an order based on a report by the Ministry of Education, regardless of university grade or nationality. They were to receive an allowance calculated on the basis of the salaries paid to established faculty professors. They were to be recruited for a maximum of 2 academic years within the limits of the appropriations made in the budget of the Ministry of Education and the universities' own resources.

These orders have been superseded by the Order of 6 June 1969. This text authorises the appointment of scientists who are not of French nationality to the classes of professors and maîtres de conférences, maîtres assistants and chefs de travaux pratiques and associate assistants, when their qualifications and services so warrant. The sole condition imposed is that they shall have been recommended both by the competent authorities of the university in which they are to be employed and by the universities consultative committee. These associate teachers work either full-time or part-time. They may not, however, exceed 5% of the budgetary strength of the classes in question and are appointed for 2 years only, though this period may be prolonged for further one-year periods by ministerial decision.

2. Lecteurs

Lecteurs assist in language teaching at universities. They are not covered by any set of regulations. The working and service conditions differ widely and depend on a kind of unwritten law which can vary greatly from one university to another. The only thing which all lecteurs have in common is that they are salaried. This heterogeneity can be seen firstly in the methods of recruitment: the UER selects its lecteurs in the same way as it selects its other teachers, with the added difficulty that it must decide on the basis of recommendations which are sometimes enthusiastic but vague. Where a cultural agreement exists with a given country, it is often this country which selects the lecteurs it sends. The period of appointment can also vary considerably: while some UERs practise a one-year or 2-year rotation of their lecteurs, others re-appoint them each year, so that they may remain in post for 10 years or more. There is diversity too in the qualifications. A lecteur may be an advanced student without any teaching experience or a doctor from a foreign university who has lived and taught in France for 10 years. Lastly, there is diversity in the kind of duties and the amount of work performed, since there are no regulations on the lecteur's weekly timetable.

3. The Order of 28 April 1972

Article 30 of the Act on the orientation of higher studies of 1 November 1968 broke with the rule that only French nationals may be engaged as civil servants. This article reads as follows: "Notwithstanding the general civil service regulations, teachers of foreign nationality may be appointed to the teaching staff of higher education establishments under the conditions laid down by order of the council of state". According to the order issued on 28 April 1972, teachers of foreign nationality may be appointed professor or maître de conférences when their qualifications and record so warrant, provided they have been proposed both by the competent authorities of the university in which they will take up their duties and by the universities consultative committee (1).

IV. Outward mobility

1. The countries concerned

France is engaged in large-scale co-operation programmes, mainly with North Africa and the French-speaking African countries and Madagascar. This co-operation is organised under international agreements which lay down in precise detail the conditions governing the French

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(1) The Consultative Committee of Universities is an advisory body which reports to the Minister for Education. According to the terms of Article 2 of the order of 6 November 1972, the committee is consulted in particular on individual questions concerning the recruitment and career of teaching staff with university status in universities, university centres etc.

To this end it places the names of candidates on listes d'aptitude for higher education, subject to special provisions concerning certain disciplines. It gives its opinion, taking into account the statutory provisions in force, on the appointment of professors and the promotion of teaching staff.

In principle the plenary committee is chaired by the Minister for Education. It is composed of representatives of professors and maîtres de conférences, the former being elected and the latter nominated, and of representatives of maîtres assistants and established chefs de travaux pratiques.

teachers and research workers involved in the scheme. There are specific provisions on the arrangements for departure, residence and return of those concerned, in accordance with their original situation.

What might be called "common law mobility" - that is, mobility which is not covered by international co-operation agreements concluded by the French Government, is of course a quite different matter. In this case, which is the most normal one, we must consider the situation of established staff and that of auxiliary staff or staff under contract.

2. Established staff

As we have seen, there is necessarily a certain rigidity in the situation of a civil servant. But this is mitigated by the fact that established civil servants are precisely those who enjoy sufficient statutory guarantees to be able to spend periods of varying duration abroad, since the civil service regulations contain procedures which make this possible.

a. Established teachers may envisage long-term mobility by adopting one of the 3 following procedures:

- A civil servant detached from his original corps but continuing to enjoy his promotion and pension rights within that corps is regarded as having been seconded (Article 38 of the general regulations). Secondment may take place in the following cases referred to in Order no. 59-309 of 14 February 1959 concerning the position of civil servants:

  . secondment to an administration, office or public establishment of the state in a post leading to a pension under the general retirement scheme;

  . secondment to départements, municipalities or public establishments other than national ones in overseas territories;

  . secondment to services of the Community and of its member states;

  . secondment to a public administration or undertaking in a post which does not lead to a pension under the general retirement scheme, or secondment to a private undertaking, provided in this latter case that the appointment to the post is officially announced or approved by the government;

  . secondment to occupy a teaching post or carry out a public mission abroad or in an international organisation;

  . secondment to act as a member of the government, to perform an elective public function or a trade union mandate when the function or mandate entails obligations which prevent the usual functions from being exercised normally;

  . secondment to a private undertaking in order to carry out work needed for the purposes of the national research programme as defined by the interministerial committee of scientific and technical research appointed under Order no. 59-1144 of 28 November 1958.

- An hors cadre appointment (Art. 42 of the regulations) may be made in respect of an official seconded either to an administration or to a public undertaking in a post which does not lead to a pension under the general retirement scheme or to an international organisation when that official so requests, in order to continue to serve in the same administration, undertaking or organisation.

- A civil servant who is placed outside his original administration or service and thereby ceases to be entitled to his promotion and retirement rights is regarded as being unattached (Art. 44 of the regulations). This position may be granted in the following cases (Art. 24 of Order no. 59-309) which are of interest for our present purposes:

  . studies or research of general interest; in this case the period of unattachment may not exceed 3 years, but is renewable once for the same length of time;

  . for personal reasons; the period of unattachment may in this case not exceed one year, but is renewable once for the same length of time.

b. Established teachers may envisage a short or medium-term stay abroad in pursuance of Order 67-497 of 30 May 1969 and circulars 3-69 no. 1302 of 19 June 1969 and 3 September 1970.

Teachers undertaking a mission abroad must comply with:

- either the mission procedure if the mission has been effected on behalf of the Ministry of Education or an establishment under its authority;
- or the mission authorisation procedure when it is effected on behalf of another national, international or foreign institution.

3. Non-established staff

When staff are recruited on a contractual basis their contracts, and possibly the regulations under which those contracts were concluded, may be found to contain provisions facilitating a certain mobility. This appears likely in the case of research workers under contract with the National Centre for Scientific Research.

On the other hand, teachers who are auxiliaries, and in general all those appointed to teaching posts for one year, can envisage spending a long period in a foreign university or laboratory only by interrupting their career at home. Their chances of finding a comparable post again when they return to France depend largely on the discretionary powers of their university or another similar establishment. This applies especially to chargés de cours and non-established assistants.

On the other hand, there is nothing to prevent the regulations concerning missions from being applied to non-established staff for short or medium periods abroad, but such staff are rarely in this position.

V. National bodies contributing towards mobility

1. The Ministry of Education

When the department of university relations with foreign countries was expanded, a directorate for co-operation was set up. This directorate disappeared again when the Ministry of Education was reorganised by Mr Olivier Guichard. Under this reorganisation, which makes a distinction between the definition of objectives and their implementation, the first function was entrusted to a director of international relations and the second to a division of the directorate responsible for universities and higher education and research establishments (Division of International University Co-operation).

The Minister also has a delegate-general for international university relations.

The duties of the director of international relations and the delegate-general do not seem to be clearly circumscribed, and it should be possible to merge them without difficulty.

2. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs

This ministry traditionally plays a large part in France's cultural relations (1). The directorate-general of cultural, scientific and technical relations supervises cultural and technical co-operation projects in order to assist the development of the less privileged countries (except the African states and Madagascar) for which the Secretariat of state for co-operation is responsible. This directorate also encourages international relations and collaboration in the field of research and advanced technology.

3. The "Office National des Universités et Ecoles françaises" (National Office of French Universities and Schools)

This office, founded in 1910, is placed under the joint presidency of the Ministers for Education and Foreign Affairs. It promotes intellectual exchanges between French and foreign universities and arranges for the placing of French assistants abroad and foreign assistants in France as well as certain grades of foreign lecteurs.

The office could certainly extend its information role if closer co-ordination were established between its activities and the international responsibilities of the Conference of University Presidents.

4. The Conference of French Rectors

The rectors have always taken an interest in international co-operation between universities and have made a very positive contribution along these lines, either individually or corporately or at international conferences of rectors. Henceforth, however, the Act on the orientation of higher studies seems likely to entrust primary responsibility for international university representation to their elected presidents. In future the rectors will act as simple trustees of the universities with regard to international matters, in their new capacity as chancellors of the universities and of their académie (educational region).

5. The Conference of University Presidents

The National Council for Higher Education created under the Act on the orientation of higher education should normally be consulted when the international policy of French universities is defined, as stipulated by the Act. This council has 2 chambers, one elected at national level and the other resulting from the institutionalisation of the National Conference of University Presidents whose chairman is the Minister for Education.

We believe that this conference of presidents will henceforth discharge the bulk of the duties formerly devolving on the Conference of French Rectors.

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(1) For a more general discussion of this point, see H LESGUILLONS: "Objectifs et méthodes du colloque sur la co-opération entre les Universités", Revue du Marché Commun No. 139, December 1970, pp. 558 et seq.

Section IV

UNITED KINGDOM

I. Structure and status

1. The universities in the United Kingdom are completely autonomous and so there are variations from one university to another. First of all, alongside the universities there exist colleges of which fellowships are a distinguishing feature. This is the case in Oxford and Cambridge in particular, where education is based on the tutorial system. The fellows direct the studies of the students who are members of the college. In many cases, however, in addition to their college post, fellows hold a university post. In universities based on departments the structure of the teaching staff, despite some variations, follows the pattern outlined below:

a. Assistant lecturer. Appointments to this post are rarely for longer than 3 years. Duties vary considerably. They may be given light duties in order to enable them to carry out research. Sometimes they have the same duties as lecturers.

b Lecturer. Numerically the largest category, and one which has a wide-ranging salary scale. Lecturers share the main teaching, examination and research duties in the department to which they are attached. A lecturer may even be the head of a department for which a Chair has not been created.

If he has distinguished himself in his post, or if appointment is made by open competition, a lecturer may be promoted to the grade of senior lecturer.

Appointment as reader represents promotion to a grade slightly higher than that of senior lecturer.

c. Professor. Holder of a Chair and frequently head of a department. The number of professors is much smaller than that of lecturers. Professors are responsible for teaching and research at departmental level. University teachers are not civil servants and the universities are free to recruit them according to their own procedure and requirements This may lead to considerable differences between universities. There is, as has been seen, a standard career structure in higher education; furthermore, a salary scale is laid down by discussion among the U.G.C. (University Grants Committee), the Committee of University Vice-Chancellors and the Association of University Teachers.

2. Research status

One of the peculiarities of the higher education system in Great Britain is the difference in status between university staff and scientists carrying out research in government establishments, who are part of the civil service. There are, too, other categories with different status.

a. Civil servants

This category is subject to all the inherent rigidity of public service, degree requirements, competitions, promotion by seniority and a strictly uniform appointment procedure.

They comprise laboratory staff directly responsible to ministries.

b. Unestablished scientists

Staff of the research councils. Although financed by the state, these organisations have a certain autonomy and recruit their own staff. In fact, their status, hierarchy and salaries are modelled on those of the civil servants.

The organisation of the UKAEA, the Atomic Energy Authority, a joint body, is similar to that of the research councils.

The UKAEA takes in university research workers enabling them to carry out projects which require expensive equipment.

In addition, some university teachers act as advisers, and there are vacation courses for tutors and students.

c. Staff of the Medical Research Council

The career of a member of the MRC is equivalent to that of an academic and the remuneration is the same. The MRC is, moreover, based on the research unit as in the science faculties. Thus there is considerable mobility in this area between government establishments and the universities.

On the other hand, where other disciplines are concerned, the universities are afraid of losing their best members if they are given temporary employment in a government laboratory.

II. Recruitment and appointment

The educational situation in the United Kingdom clearly shows factors contributing to fluidity.

The comparison between the status and recruitment of staff in government establishments and the universities is significant.

1. In the universities members of staff are not civil servants, there is free recruitment and procedure varies.

As a general rule, recruitment is by the public advertisement of vacancies. In some universities advertising is on occasion only a matter of form, appointment boards already having a candidate in mind. As a rule too, vacancies are advertised in the national press and in specialised journals; the university concerned then makes a free selection, without having to observe any external requirements.

Such procedure greatly facilitates geographical and intersectorial mobility, since a university may perfectly well call upon an engineer or any other outside person.

This tendency to recruit from industry without attaching importance to academic qualifications is more frequent in the newer universities. There is, therefore, considerable mobility from the private sector to the universities.

2. The staff of government establishments are civil servants recruited by competition or on qualifications according to prescribed appointment procedure. This entails all the consequences of public status: greatly reduced mobility for civil servants and unestablished staff, as pointed out by the Zuckermann Commission, either between governmental establishments or between these and the universities or the private sector.

The Fulton Commission (HMSO June 1968) recommends fundamental changes in the structure of the civil service; abolition of the present categories and rigid differences between administrators, scientists etc. Promotion should be based on individual merit, without regard to seniority.

III. Inward mobility

1. As has been seen, there is no statutory ruling to prevent foreigners from taking up a staff appointment.

The university recruiting procedure described above shows how it facilitates mobility. There are no types of post reserved for nationals or for foreigners.

"Visiting professors" are invited from abroad when deemed necessary and the funds needed are available. They may also be members of a government establishment who give tuition and assist in directing research in a university.

2. A scheme which promotes intersectorial mobility is the "sandwich-course" system as applied in the training of engineers. It consists of full-time courses and sets a pattern for co-operation and exchange between universities and industry.

3. In the United Kingdom it is common practice to use external examiners, some of whom come from foreign countries.

Furthermore, a large number of leading academics or members of administrative staff act as experts or consultants for university development.

4. The problem for foreign nationals entering the universities is mainly one of immigration control.

Current immigration regulations differ, according to whether the teacher continues to be remunerated by his home university or is under contract in the UK. Different regulations obtain also for teachers from the Commonwealth.

5. Entry and work permits

A foreign national entering the UK to take up paid employment must hold a work permit. A work permit is granted on condition that the foreigner has the required qualifications; that no British citizen is available to fill the vacant post; and that the remuneration paid is appropriate to the post.

The permit is issued for the duration of employment or for a maximum of one year. Application may, however, be made to the Home Office for an extension of the period of validity.

IV. Outward mobility

1. Principal countries involved

One of the main obstacles to mobility noted by the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of United Kingdom universities is that of language.

It is for this reason that British teachers and research workers generally prefer to go to the United States of America.

It is clear, too, that the Commonwealth holds a privileged position as regards co-operation with the United Kingdom. The Association of Commonwealth Universities promotes exchange programmes and publishes lists of vacant posts.

2. As far as procedure is concerned:

A growing number of universities grant their staff study leave or leave of absence;

these periods of leave are often spent abroad;

a teacher wishing to spend a short time abroad must make his own arrangements with the university wishing to employ him.

V. Social and professional rights and mobility

1. Effects on interuniversity mobility

a. Salary

University autonomy does not lead to a disparity of salaries from one university to another. A scale of salaries is laid down in discussion between the University Grants Committee, the Committee of University Vice-Chancellors and the Association of University Teachers. The Robins Commission has established that all the universities comply therewith, except Oxford and Cambridge, where salaries are higher.

b. The retirement scheme allows considerable mobility for teaching staff. There is one retirement scheme common to all the universities, namely the FSSU (Federal Superannuation System for Universities). Each teacher subscribes to an insurance policy; a pro rata premium is payable according to salary, partly by the beneficiary and partly by the institution employing him.

The policy is held by the university in which the teacher is working and is transferred each time he moves to another university. Only civil servants working in government laboratories are not affiliated to the FSSU The civil service has a non-contributory pension scheme. On the other hand, unestablished scientists in the research councils, members of the UKEA and the MRC are affiliated to the FSSU.

2. Effects on international mobility

a. Liability for taxation depends on agreements between the UK and the teacher's country of origin.

Most of these agreements provide that if tax is paid in the country of origin it may be suspended in the United Kingdom for a maximum period of 2 years.

If a visiting professor comes from a country which has no double-taxation agreement with the UK, there are 2 possibilities:

- If he receives his salary from his country of origin, he is taxed on that part of his salary which he spends in the UK. The tax which would also be payable in his home country on this part of his salary is taken into account when assessing the amount of tax payable in the UK.

- If he is paid by an employer in the UK, he is liable for taxation on the whole of his salary.

b. Professional pension

It is important for British teachers who go to a foreign country that the period spent abroad be taken into account when their pension is calculated at retirement age. Thus teachers and research workers may continue to pay their contribution and cover the contribution of the employer who would normally have paid.

c. Social security

When a British teacher is sent abroad by his employer for a period of 12 months, he remains covered by national insurance but forfeits unemployment benefits.

At the end of 12 months a teacher may contribute at employed persons' rate which will entitle him to full rights when he returns to the United Kingdom.

The United Kingdom has concluded agreements with several European countries to ensure the continuity of social security rights. Under these agreements contributions and residence in one country can be taken into account in another country.

A foreign teacher in England, who is not covered by an agreement of this sort, may pay his contribution as a wage-earner and receive the benefits of national insurance. He also is entitled to receive health service benefits and hospital treatment under the National Health Service. Unless he is a wage-earner in the UK he is entitled only to NHS benefits.

d. A problem peculiar to the United Kingdom is that of the cost of living compared with that in other European countries. There is a difference of approximately 25% which should be covered by a special grant.

VI. National bodies contributing towards mobility

1. The University Grants Committee, formed in 1919 as a permanent committee of the Treasury, has the following terms of reference:

> "To enquire into the financial needs of university education in Great Britain; to advise the government as to the application of any grants made by parliament towards meeting them; to collect, examine and make available information relating to university education throughout the United Kingdom; and to assist, in consultation with the universities and other bodies concerned, the preparation and execution of such plans for the development of the universities as may from time to time be required in order to ensure that they are fully adequate to national needs."

This body is in fact an essential link between the autonomous universities of the United Kingdom. As mentioned above, with regard to salaries of teaching staff, it has laid down a scale of salaries which is observed by all universities. It is a harmonising factor which facilitates and promotes mobility.

Grants made to universities take the form of capital investments and operational grants. The latter are intended to supplement the income of the universities and may sometimes be used to receive foreign teachers or for financial assistance to British teachers going abroad, removal expenses etc.

Furthermore, the part which the UGC ought to play in planning higher education might enable that committee to make an important contribution to international co-operation.

2. The Inter-University Council for Higher Education Overseas was created to promote co-operation between universities in the UK and university institutions overseas.

3. The Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of British universities, set up in 1918, studies matters of common interest to universities. The committee exercises considerable influence in university affairs. It is particularly interested in questions of international co-operation and plays an important part in inter-university and international mobility.

4. The British Council was established in 1934 to promote a wider knowledge of Britain and the English language abroad and the development of closer cultural relations with other countries. It was granted a Royal Charter in 1940.

The council promotes educational, professional, scientific and other exchanges with overseas countries, primarily by sponsoring visits in both directions. It sends British experts abroad on short advisory visits and recruits British teachers for service overseas. It organises exchange visits between university teachers and awards scholarships and bursaries for students wishing to study abroad.

It administers, on behalf of various specialised United Nations agencies, a series of United Nations scholarship programmes, including those for advanced studies.

5. The United States - United Kingdom Education Committee, set up by agreement in 1948, administers the Fulbright programme in the United Kingdom. In particular, it provides grants for American professors, teachers and research workers visiting the UK. Grants covering the cost of transatlantic travel and railway fares in the United States are made to British teachers and advanced students proceeding to American universities.

6. The Royal Society has for several years developed an important exchange programme for European research scientists (European Science Exchange Programme). According to the interim report published in 1971, in 5 years the Royal Society has given financial aid to more than 1,100 research scientists coming from or proceeding to 16 Western European countries. This aid is dispensed either in the form of fellowships (for stays of more than 6 months) or in the form of study visits (for stays of less than 6 months). The Royal Society has thus established an effective and extremely flexible programme. This exchange programme is at present by far the most important at post-doctoral level. That is why it is considered useful to give in appendix large extracts from the interim report (see Appendix IV).

Section V

I T A L Y

At the present time there are 2 types of university as far as administration and operational control are concerned:

- state universities and higher education institutes,
- free universities and higher education institutes.

The former are financed by the state, the latter from private funds. The free universities are, however, subject to government inspection, and the state recognises the degrees they confer.

The entire university system is based on faculty structure, grouping related subjects in academic units, such as law, literature, medicine, science etc. Institutes of higher education, too, are organised on these lines. They are more or less attached to the faculties and their independence is limited. Diversification of post-secondary education is, therefore, theoretical, despite the fact that this type of education was initially prescribed by law.

I. Structure and status

Higher education is governed by the "Testo Unico delle leggi sull' Istruzione superiore, approvato con Regio Decreto 31 agosto 1933, No. 1592". Parliament, which passes the laws relating to the universities and research, is preparing a law for organic reform of universities.

The status of teaching staff derives from the TU (Testo Unico) and the laws of 18 March 1958 and 24 February 1967.

Staff structure comprises at every level of the hierarchy temporary posts of incaricato and teachers on the permanent di ruolo staff.

1. Assistente - These must hold at least the laurea.

Assistente di ruolo is a permanent member of the teaching staff, appointed to his post after a public competition. Posts of assistente ordinario are governed by special legislation.

An assistente assists a professor in his teaching and research activities and attends to students' practical exercises. Appointments are made by the Minister of Education.

2. Professori incaricati

These are appointed by the faculty for one year and are chosen from among the liberi docenti or from candidates considered by the faculty as having special experience of the subject to be taught.

Exceptionally the faculty may also choose professori ordinari or aggregati. The duties and responsibilities of the professori incaricati, or temporary professors, are identical with those of ordinary professors as far as teaching is concerned. However, their appointment is temporary and they do not take part in the faculty council.

3. Professori aggregati

These are appointed in accordance with Law No. 585 of 25 July 1966. They have teaching and research duties and their legal status is similar to that of professori ordinari. They are members of the faculty council. Appointments to these posts are made by competition, which is open to

professori ordinari, professori incaricati, the liberi docenti, the assistenti, the heads and assistant teachers of secondary schools, research workers in foreign universities and scientific establishments and all other persons whose qualifications are accepted by the commission.

4 Professori di ruolo

This is the highest grade in the hierarchy. Within this category a distinction, albeit of little significance, is drawn between the straordinari and ordinari; a professore di ruolo must have served 3 years as straordinare before he may become a professor in the full sense of the term, i.e. holder of a chair.

II. Recruitment and appointment

Recruitment is very strict, since all posts di ruolo are filled by public competition. There is virtually no recruitment of persons from outside the universities.

However, under current legislation and regulations, foreigners may in given circumstances enter for these competitions during an academic career. This is practicable for the libera docenza, but the legal requirements are much more severe for the competitions for posts of assistente and professore di ruolo.

1. Foreigners may in certain conditions sit for the libera docenza certificate. The sole article of Law No. 11 of 5 January 1955 stipulates: "The examinations for the certificate of proficiency for the libera docenza are also open to foreigners who hold a degree of laurea or a diploma of specialisation or advanced studies obtained in Italian universities or institutions, or a diploma equivalent to that required for the admission of Italian citizens. This equivalence is recognised in a circular issued by the Ministry of Public Instruction, on the basis of reciprocal arrangements".

The liberi docenti are teachers entitled to give university courses a titolo privato.

2. The public competitions for posts of assistente and professore di ruolo are more restricted.

The procedure for these is governed by the Laws No. 449 of 27 July 1949, No. 459 of 13 July 1954 and No. 91 of 15 April 1958. When a post falls vacant in a university, a selection board of 5 members is elected by all the full-time professors on the council of the faculty in all Italian universities or establishments where the discipline concerned is taught.

Examination of the applications is carried out on the basis of particulars of each candidate's academic publications and evidence of his research and teaching activities.

The board may either recommend a single candidate or prepare a short-list of 3 in order of merit.

The board's findings are then submitted to the Minister for Education for approval.

Where the board selects only one candidate, the latter is appointed to the vacant post in the faculty concerned and his appointment confirmed by the Minister.

If a short-list is proposed and the faculty does not choose the applicant heading the list, the Minister may not appoint him so long as applicants on previous lists have not been appointed to posts in other universities by the same procedure.

Foreign candidates may in principle take part in these competitions, subject to severe restrictions, since, as we shall see, nationality is an essential requirement in Italy.

For the competition to appoint an assistente di ruolo a teacher of this category is co-opted on the board.

This method of university recruitment by university militates against mobility at national level. To move from one university to another a teacher must follow the prescribed procedure, but transfer may take place at the request of the faculty council soliciting appointment of the teacher. The recruiting competition remains valid since the selection board is national.

III. Inward mobility

1. The nationality requirement for members of di ruolo staff is very strict in Italy, as it is, too, for the incaricati or libera docenti. Art. 275 T.U. (Testo Unico):

> "No one may be engaged for work of any sort in universities or institutes of higher education who cannot obtain the certificate of proficiency for libera docenza:
>
> a. if he is not an Italian citizen;
>
> b. if his conduct has not always been satisfactory."

These requirements may, however, be waived in given limited circumstances: "The teaching of a given subject may be entrusted to a person who is not an Italian citizen where the government deems that such a course is necessary, in pursuance of written or oral international agreements. Established teachers appointed in pursuance of such provisions may only take part in those meetings of the council of the faculty or school relating to the organic structure and practice of teaching."

The engagement of teachers from abroad or from outside the universities is, in fact, extremely limited in Italy. The exclusive recruitment procedure, together with the nationality requirement, considerably militates against intersectorial and international mobility.

In the free universities there is no legal stipulation that teachers shall be of Italian nationality. Indeed, Article 208 T.U. Part 2 reads:

> "To fill teaching posts in newly created universities or higher education institutes, within the limits of staff availability, at the time of their legal recognition, the Ministry may, upon application, and subject to the prior assent of the governing bodies or authorities of the said university or institutes, transfer teachers from any university or higher education institute, to teach the subject in which they are already established, or other subjects, as the case may be."

A final qualifying clause shows, however, the narrow limits of this possibility of transfer:

> "Should other posts remain available, they shall be filled according to the standard procedure laid down for state universities and higher education institutes."

2. The only posts reserved for foreign nationals are those of lettori di lingua straniera (foreign language assistants).

Article 6 of the Law No. 349 of 18 March 1958 provides that: "For the post of lecturer in a foreign language the requirement of Italian nationality may be waived. Extraordinary lecturers in a foreign language of non-Italian nationality shall as a general rule be a responsibility of the foreign state sending them to the Italian university."

IV. Outward mobility

1. University teachers and research workers who wish to go abroad before obtaining secure employment may have to face considerable difficulties upon their return.

2. The position of established teachers and professors has been improved by Laws No. 311 of 18 March 1958 and No. 1114 of 27 July 1962.

With regard to professors, Article 10 of the Law of 18 March 1958 provides that:

"On exceptional and justified grounds of study or scientific research requiring residence abroad, a faculty professor may be granted leave of absence for a full academic year. Such leave, granted by the Minister after consulting the faculty to which the professor belongs, shall not be renewable for the following year."

Possibilities of leaving are therefore very restricted.

3. Nevertheless, Italy has clearly made progress as a result of Law 1114 of 27 July 1962 which safeguards the legal and economic position of state employees (established teachers and professors), authorising them to accept employment with international organisations or institutions and to carry out duties with foreign states.

4. The problem of return

a. Mobility of teachers of lower grades is restricted by the fact that it means interrupting their university career. The law makes no provision for validating periods of teaching and research abroad.

b. As mentioned above, no problem arises in respect of professors who go abroad for one year with the authorisation of the Ministry of Education.

c. Professors who have been abroad to teach in legally recognised foreign universities, as holders of a chair or under a contract of not less than 3 years duration, are entitled to take up a post on their return. Under the terms of Article 1 of Decree No. 460 of 11 March 1968, promulgated by the President of the Republic:

"They may, when they have been successful in a competition for a chair in Italian institutes of higher education, obtain a transfer to a post in the same subject, or another subject, in the said institutes, according to the standard procedure laid down for the transfer of university professors."

V. Social and professional rights and mobility

Article 10 of the Law of 18 March 1958 stipulates that a professor taking one year's research leave of absence abroad shall retain his status of established professor for the purposes of career service and salary.

VI. National bodies contributing towards mobility

The number of such organisations is limited and their motivations regarding mobility are varied. Whilst it is recognised that it is necessary to encourage the mobility of students and teachers by national measures and international agreements, whether they be nominal, financial, legislative or scientific and technical, it is considered that such mobility must be kept within limits, since each move means a loss of study time and may fail to achieve its purpose owing to lack of adaptation. It must, too, be borne in mind that at a time when education expenditure is rising, it is not possible to provide for heavy financial outlay in respect of mobility.

Despite these reservations, valuable assistance in promoting mobility can be rendered by:

1. the Minister for Education who may authorise the appointment of foreign teachers to temporary posts in Italian universities;

2. private finance circles which subsidise the free universities and higher education institutes and might, in the absence, a priori, of any legal obstacle thereto, encourage the admission of foreign nationals in this sector;

3. the National Council for Scientific Research (Consiglio nazionale delle richerche), whose aim is to promote and co-ordinate scientific research in universities and other public or private institutes and organisations responsible to the CNR.

According to Article 2 of the decreto legislativo mogotenziale no. 82 of 1 March 1945, the CNR is concerned with international scientific co-operation. Under the terms of Article 20 of the Decree promulgated by the President of the Council of Ministers, of 26 January 1967, the CNR fosters research work by scientists in Italy and promotes scientific research in general.

To this end the CNR is empowered to:

a. "Make grants-in-aid to enable Italian or foreign experts or research scientists to work in Italian or foreign scientific institutions",

b. "Provide funds to enable Italian and foreign research scientists to attend congresses, meetings, conferences, courses, schools or seminars in Italy or abroad".

c. Lastly, the CNR may, in given circumstances, award research scholarships to Italian students (laureandi) and to foreigners.

4. Both universities and institutes may play a useful part. Institutes have limited funds at their disposal for the purpose of inviting teachers and research workers from abroad.

Section VI

THE NETHERLANDS

I. Structure and status

The Act on University Education (wetenschappelijk onderwijs) which came into force on 1 January 1961 makes a distinction between university education establishments (universities, technical and economic universities, university hospital centres, interuniversity institutes) according to whether they are public or non-public. Public universities comprise state universities and the municipal university of Amsterdam. Non-public universities are those founded by organisations other than the state or the municipal authorities. Denominational universities, such as the Protestant University of Amsterdam and the Catholic Universities of Nijmegen and Tilburg, constitute a special group of non-public universities.

Since 1970 the non-public universities have been wholly financed by the state and are open to students under the same conditions as public universities.

All universities are legal entities and enjoy autonomy under the legal regulations and directives of the Minister for Education and Science. These regulations and directives are decided upon by a governing body (College van Bestuur).

Lastly, the 1970 University Administration Reform Act has radically changed the administrative structure in all universities. This Act, which is based on the French 1968 Higher Education Act, has introduced a system of councils elected at all university levels.

The structure and recruitment of teaching staff and the relevant regulations have recently been reorganised. Briefly outlined, the situation is as follows.

The term "academic research corps" (wetenschappelijk corps) comprises all research workers and university teachers as well as the university librarian.

Members of the teaching staff encounter few legal obstacles to vertical mobility: in theory no diploma is required for a specific post. In practice, however, a university diploma is an essential passport to a teaching career. Special research and teaching skills are also required. Distinctions are made between the following:

1. Assistent

Assistent posts are temporary: they are intended for people who will leave the university after a short period, having specialised in a subject or carried out research.

Thus for instance:

- The Arts-assistent, possessing a degree in medicine, acquires a specialisation in a university hospital.
- The Promotie-assistent prepares a thesis or conducts research after obtaining a degree. He assists a professor in teaching and research.

2. Wetenschappelijk medewerker

A "wetenschappelijk medewerker" is an established member of the university staff working under a professor or lecturer and is responsible for teaching and research. The university council may ask him to give lectures and permit him to conduct examinations.

According to Professor Van Wappen, who has very kindly revised and corrected this section, wetenschappelijke medewerkers are comparable to the junior and senior lecturers of British universities.

3. A lector is also a permanent member of the university staff.

A gewoon lector is a full-time lecturer, devoting himself entirely to teaching and research.

A buitengewoon lector, on the other hand, is a part-time lecturer whose main activities lie outside the university. The contribution made by extra-mural specialists is thus facilitated.

4. A hoogleraar, or established professor, is at the top of the hierarchy of permanent university posts.

The difference between a hoogleraar and a lector lies not only in the degree of academic competence (a criterion of which is the number of works published), but also in other factors such as the importance of the discipline in question among the various university branches and the amount of administrative responsibilities to be undertaken. Both hoogleraar and lector are automatically entitled to teach and examine.

At the hoogleraar level a distinction is made, as in the case of the lector, between full-time and part-time posts. The gewoon hoogleraar, an ordinary professor who holds a chair, must devote himself entirely to teaching and research. He may also be the director of an institute or laboratory inside or outside the university.

The buitengewoon hoogleraar, an extraordinary professor who holds a chair, is not obliged to devote himself entirely to teaching and research. His main duties usually lie outside the university. He is engaged for a limited period but his appointment is generally renewed.

In conclusion, it will be noted that there is a formal difference only between the legal status of staff at non-public universities and that of their counterparts in the public universities.

II. Recruitment and appointment

No discrimination is normally made in the recruitment procedure; in Catholic and Protestant universities, however, Catholic or Protestant candidates are generally preferred, academic qualifications being equal.

Recruitment of wetenschappelijke medewerkers

A student finishing his studies and wishing to take up an academic career may be appointed wetenschappelijk medewerker. After 4 or 5 years he is normally promoted to wetenschappelijk medewerker first class and after another 4 years to head wetenschappelijk medewerker.

Each of these grades corresponds to an annual salary increase.

When a post falls vacant, if a candidate from another university or from a non-university background and possessing adequate experience is selected, he may become both "wetenschappelijk medewerker first class" and "head wetenschappelijk medewerker".

Up to this level, therefore, the "negative selection" method is used.

Lector and hoogleraar

For the hoogleraar and lector grades, however, the "positive selection" method is adopted: candidates must be selected according to their academic abilities on the basis of an open competitive examination, which means that candidates from other universities, or even "outside" candidates, may apply.

The recruitment procedure is at present as follows: as soon as a lector or hoogleraar chair falls vacant, a special board is appointed within the faculty to examine applications. A peculiar feature of these boards is that they comprise not only hoogleraaren and lectoren of the relevant specialities but also wetenschappelijke medewerkers and students.

An enquiry is conducted, especially among "sister" faculties, in order to obtain the maximum of information about the academic abilities of the candidates.

The board makes a selection and proposes a candidate to the faculty council, comprising elected representatives of the academic research corps, administrative and technical staff and students. If the council votes in favour of the candidate, his application is submitted to the administrative board. In the case of public universities, the latter in turn recommends to the Crown that the candidate be officially appointed.

One remarkable fact is that certain universities advertise vacant posts in foreign newspapers and thus invite teachers of other nationalities to apply. Such a procedure, which is a free and open one, constitutes a positive step towards greater mobility.

III. Inward mobility

1. The recruitment of foreign academic staff and foreign teachers by contract for a definite or indefinite period does not seem to pose any statutory problems in the Netherlands. There is no nationality requirement. The universities and public research institutes are entirely free to engage foreign teachers or research workers.

2. Information problems

There is no particular publication advertising vacant posts at the national level.

3. There are no posts specially reserved for foreigners, nor is any quota or places assigned to them in particular branches.

Some posts, however, are more easily accessible to them:

- The docent, who has no legal status. This is a term applied to persons engaged by the Minister for Education and Science under the Act on Higher Education. The contract is for 2 years and involves teaching only. Appointment is renewable and usually

part-time. This post, which is similar to that of associate teacher in France (recruitment is possible at all levels of the hierarchy), enables the services of both qualified nationals and foreigners to be employed.

- The gasthoogleraar is a seconded foreign professor. It is the Ministry of Education and Science which, on the recommendation of the Senate, decides on his powers within the university.

In most universities there are reserved posts which attract certain research workers. At Leyden University a chair is permanently reserved for a foreign professor and is held by a different person each year. Another possibility is that foreigners are invited as guests to do research at a university. In this case they remain at the disposal of their employer.

4. The rights of foreign teachers in the Netherlands

A foreigner who is a visiting teacher in the Netherlands for a short period may not be a member of an examining board, not because he is an alien but because he is not a member of the faculty.

There do not seem to be any legal obstacles, however, to the assessment of a doctorate thesis by a foreign teacher (professor or lecturer).

5. Although there are no valid statistics on the mobility of teachers and research workers, a few figures are worth quoting:

- At the State University of Eindhoven there are 14 foreigners, 3 of whom have the rank of professor or lecturer and 11 are members of the university staff.

- At the State University of Enschede there are 14 foreigners of whom 4 are professors, 9 are members of the university staff and one is a visiting American professor.

- At the Free University of Amsterdam there are 21 foreigners, 4 of whom have the rank of professor or lecturer. The others are members of the teaching staff.

These few figures show that mobility chiefly affects teachers of intermediate status, assistants not being regarded in the Netherlands as forming part of the academic staff. This situation is not peculiar to that country. In general, assistants have few possibilities of being received in the universities of other countries.

6. Financial assistance

The ZWO (Nederlandse Organisatie voor Zuiver Wetenschappelijk Onderzoek, or Netherlands Institute for Fundamental Research) awards research grants to foreign scientists for one year at the most, on the initiative of institutes which accept research workers under the terms of cultural agreements.

Certain postgraduate teaching institutes such as the Institute of Social Studies at The Hague, the International Institute in Delft and the Tropical Institute in Amsterdam, award scholarships.

Decisions are taken by the institutes themselves.

IV. Outward mobility

1. The language problem and NUFFIC

The Netherlands has to resolve an important obstacle to mobility: Dutch is not an international working language.

Since the fifties there has been an extensive reorganisation of the structure of studies in an atmosphere of international co-operation and closer contacts. This led to the international type of education which now exists in the Netherlands, and which gave rise in 1952 to NUFFIC, a university body developing international education mainly outside the universities. The working language is English (sometimes French).

The aim of this foundation is "to promote international co-operation in the field of higher education and scientific research in the widest sense".

"It pays special attention to forms of international co-operation which are directed towards the developing countries."

The foundation seeks to achieve this goal by the following means:

a. By promoting and co-ordinating the activities of the universities and higher education establishments which come within the foundation's scope;

b. By encouraging the study of the problems posed by international co-operation in the field of higher education and scientific research;

c. By supplying information, advice and assistance to universities and higher education establishments, as well as to other bodies and persons in all matters relating to international scientific exchanges;

d. By maintaining institutes, courses of study and lectures to provide education, especially for foreigners, in one or more working languages and which undertake scientific research;

e. By organising examinations and regulating the issue of study certificates, diplomas and degrees resulting from such courses and examinations;

f. By arranging international scientific meetings;

g. By promoting contacts between Dutch universities and higher education establishments and their counterparts abroad, especially in developing countries;

h. By acting as an intermediary in the recruitment of executive staff for higher education and scientific research establishments in the developing countries;

i. By assisting the execution of international technical assistance programmes which come within the foundation's field of activity;

j. By co-operating with and aiding other institutions serving the cause of international co-operation in the field of higher education and scientific research.

The language problem is now more or less solved in the Netherlands where English, French and German have become working languages. There is a large measure of mobility from and towards these countries.

2. Procedures

Nearly all kinds of mobility towards other countries are in evidence in the Netherlands, albeit on a small scale. All requests such as that of participating in summer schools or going abroad for a short, medium or long period for teaching or research work are examined individually.

The person concerned must send an application to the university authorities.

So far no Dutch professor seems to have sat on an examining board in a foreign university.

3. Obstacles

Mobility towards other countries, however, creates national difficulties. In several faculties, there is a shortage of staff. There are many vacant posts and it is difficult to find qualified persons to fill them. This situation does not make for greater mobility.

If a substantial number of professors and research workers in these faculties wished to go abroad, the present difficulties might become a serious problem.

4. The problem of return

Professors who go abroad have no great difficulty in finding a vacant post on their return. The experience they have gained abroad and the contacts they have established between national and international research are, moreover, generally appreciated.

A person who leaves his university because he wants to take up a career abroad, however, could obviously have difficulty in finding an equivalent post on his return. This will depend on whether a vacant post exists and on his qualifications.

A professor or member of the teaching staff who goes abroad to teach or conduct research for a limited period (under a year) may often arrange with his university for his post to remain open for him until his return.

V. Social and professional rights and mobility

1. The starting salary of a member of the university staff is no lower than that offered in industry. However, salaries rise much faster in industry, where there is more scope for salary differentials than in the hierarchical structure of the teaching profession. The resultant competition is leading to a shortage of qualified staff, particularly in medical faculties.

2. Social security

Foreigners who make a long stay in the Netherlands come under the social security system.

3. For short absences, the university budgets contain special funds - admittedly very slender - to cover the travel and subsistence costs of teachers and research workers going abroad for a course of study, visit, colloquy or seminar.

The resources in question remain very modest: for example, the Technological University of Delft, which has many contacts abroad, had a sum of 550,000 guilders earmarked for this purpose out of a total budget of 134,000,000 guilders in 1970.

4. Pension rights are not affected. Persons pursuing their careers abroad keep the pension rights they acquired during the years in which they worked in the Netherlands.

VI. National bodies contributing towards mobility

1. As mentioned above, NUFFIC serves as an information centre on higher education and research abroad. In particular, it assesses the studies carried out and the diplomas obtained abroad. It informs foreigners about higher education and research in the Netherlands.

2. The main tasks of the "Academische Raad", an academic council created in 1961, are to promote co-operation between the universities and ensure liaison between them and society.

3. The Conference of University Rectors (Nederlandsche Rectorencollege).

Section VII

FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY

I. Structure and status

Most of the universities and other higher education establishments have a public status laid down by law. Under the Basic Law of 23 May 1949, legislation on education used to be the prerogative of the "Länder". However, owing to the considerable increase in the number of students, the need to plan higher education and the desirability of diversifying post-secondary education, this proved too heavy a responsibility for the "Länder" alone.

As a result of a recent revision of the Constitution, co-operation is now possible between the federal government and the "Länder". The revision was embodied in the Second Act amending the Basic Law, dated 12 May 1969. Certain tasks which were previously a matter solely for the "Länder" have been designated common tasks - notably, the expansion of the existing universities and creation of new ones. The Constitution (Art. 75) already empowered the Federation to issue outline provisions regarding the "legal status of persons in the public service of the 'Länder'", which is the case with teachers possessing the status of "Land" civil servants. Now it is also able to establish general rules and principles for higher education.

In accordance with these changes, the Federal Minister for Education and Science presented early in 1970 some proposals for an outline Act on higher education ("Hochschulrahmengesetz").

On 12 May 1970, during its 80th plenary session, the "Westdeutsche Rektorenkonferenz" drew up some counter-proposals comprising 14 points.

On 30 October 1970, Mr Leussink, the German Federal Minister for Education and Science, presented a new version of the outline bill on higher education. This version takes into account the comments made by the various "Land" Ministers and the views expressed by organisations and associations responsible for education.

The bill applies to establishments which have the status of public higher education establishments under "Land" law. In particular it applies to:

1. The new category of single higher education establishments, a concept which roughly corresponds to that of a multi-disciplinary university. This form of single establishment is intended to replace existing establishments through amalgamation. All future higher education establishments will take the form of single establishments - ie comprehensive universities ("Gesamthochschulen"), whose basic component is a teaching and research unit ("Fachbereich") embracing several disciplines.

2. All universities and higher education establishments existing when the Act comes into force.

Higher education establishments function under the authority of the "Land" governments - ie the "Land" Ministers for Education. But a "Land's" control is confined to supervising legality, by such means as are laid down by law, except where a higher education establishment performs tasks coming within the "Land's" own competence. Otherwise, higher education establishments administer themselves in accordance with the law and draw up their own regulations, though these must be approved by the competent "Land" authorities.

As regards the status of the higher education establishments, it should be noted that the "Länder" are empowered to draw up their budgets. Examination regulations must also be submitted to the "Land" Minister for approval

As a result of this autonomy, there are substantial differences among the Länder as regards the status of teachers. The "Länder" nevertheless try to co-ordinate basic regulations and practices as far as possible by means of joint resolutions adopted by the Conference of "Land" Ministers Education.

Here, a brief outline may be given of the present general situation regarding the structure of teaching staff. The 1970 Bill (Bundesrat Document 689/70) provides for various changes which will be described later.

A. The present university structure

The structure comprises different sections and levels. Vertical mobility generally depends on the following factors:

a. At the lower level, in order to become an "Assistent", it is necessary to have been an outstanding student and obtained a doctorate ("Promotion").

"Assistenten"

This category comprises various statuses. In general, "Assistenten" are lower status teachers who do not always belong to the intermediate section of staff ("Mittelbau").

A distinction is made between:

1. "Assistenten" without a doctorate. These do not nave civil servant status but they do belong to the university hierarchy since this concept is a very special one in Germany: the university, being regarded as a living organism, is itself the university hierarchy, and accordingly even students belong to it. But "Assistenten" without a doctorate have very limited rights and their status is a precarious one.

2. "Assistenten" holding a doctorate usually become non-established civil servants ("Beamten auf Widerruf"); that is, they are appointed for a limited period and may lose their civil servant status at any time. Temporary civil servants have a more precarious status than permanent ones. In particular, if they leave their posts in order to go and teach abroad they lose their status, though in practice they are generally given an assurance as regards later reappointment as "Assistent".

"Assistenten" are appointed for 2-4 years. They may obtain an extension, generally up to a total of 8 years; extensions beyond that are granted only in exceptional cases.

Fairly extensive intersectorial mobility exists among "Assistenten", since many of them enter professional life. But this mobility is unidirectional only.

b. For about 20 years there has been an intermediate section of staff ("Mittelbau"), covering permanent posts at the level immediately below that of titular professor. This category, which has been specially favoured, comprises the following grades:

1. "Wissenschaftlicher Rat und Professor" (Academic counsellor and professor)

Holders of this post have full powers as regards teaching and research, and most universities require the "Habilitation". Under university rules, the "Habilitation" carries the "venia legendi" - that is, permission to lecture under one's own name.

2. "Akademischer Rat", "akademischer Oberrat"

These are permanent posts entailing teaching and research duties for which the "Habilitation" is not required. As regards research, holders of these posts are responsible for large units of equipment and collections of material. As regards teaching, their purpose is to relieve professors of some of their tasks. For this reason the number of such posts has been considerably increased over the last few years. Holders must have a doctorate ("Promotion"). When teaching, they are expected to do 6 to 10 hours' lecturing a week. These posts do not form part of the normal career of a university professor; appointment to the grade of professor is therefore exceptional.

3. "Studienrat im Hochschuldienst"; "Studienprofessor im Hochschuldienst" (Secondary school teachers seconded to higher education)

These are permanently assigned to tasks in higher education. Research qualifications, such as the "Habilitation", are not therefore required.

4. "Oberassistent"; "Oberingenieur", "Oberarzt" (in hospitals)

Like ordinary "Assistenten" these are non-established civil servants; they may be deprived of civil service status at any time. They generally have the "Habilitation". Holders of these posts stand a good chance of becoming titular professors.

5. "Privatdozent"

Under university rules, all intermediate staff possessing the "Habilitation" (ie having the necessary qualifications for becoming a titular professor) have the status of "Privatdozent". This status is not automatically connected with the civil service. The budgets of most "Länder" include civil servant posts for "Privatdozenten"; thus some "Privatdozenten" may become temporary civil servants ("Beamten auf Zeit") or non-established civil servants ("Beamten auf Widerruf"). A "Dozent" of this kind who is paid as a civil servant is called a "Diätendozent".

A "Privatdozent" possessing the "Habilitation" may, if he has done important research work, obtain the title of supernumerary professor ("ausserplanmässiger Professor"), which is conferred by the "Land Minister" at the university's request.

All "Privatdozenten" and supernumerary professors are called "Nichtordinarien" in order to distinguish them from titular professors ("Ordinarien").

c. "Ordinarien"

These are professors holding a chair (ordinary and extraordinary) and are in all cases permanent civil servants of a "Land". They form the only category which enjoys full professional rights. The status of ordinary professor is usually reached at the age of 45.

B. Changes provided for in the 1970 Bill

The Bill provides for some major simplifications as well as various solutions to problems concerning "Assistenten". The status of the latter is very disadvantageous and proposals were put forward long ago for improving it. With the proposals for reforming the "Habilitation" and the

changes provided for in the 1970 Bill, the position of "Assistenten" could alter radically. They would become much more closely integrated with teaching and research and might receive greater statutory guarantees. Under Art. 40 of the 1970 Bill, the number of categories of staff in higher education establishments is reduced to 4: assistant professors, professors, scientific and artistic collaborators, and teachers for special tasks. There are also assistant lecturers and tutors.

The situation is not, however, as clear-cut as may at first appear. Various associations, particularly the BAK ("Bundesassistentenkonferenz"), hope that the present "Assistenten" will belong to the future category of assistant professors. In fact, it seems that, if the Bill is adopted, "Assistenten" will become the scientific and artistic collaborators provided for in Art. 50.

a. Assistant professors

1. Under the reforms now proposed, some "Assistenten" holding a doctorate ("wissenschaftliche Assistenten") will be appointed assistant professors ("Assistenzprofessoren"). The others may obtain a non-civil service post or apply for one of the intermediate grade posts (eg university counsellor).

After 6 years they may either move to another branch or be discharged by the teaching and research unit, which takes decisions concerning the status of its members.

This period of activity does not entitle the person concerned to a pension. For each year of service, assistant professors receive a tiding-over allowance of one month's salary. This shows that the status of an assistant professor is still a temporary one. He is not a permanent part of the university hierarchy.

This position would, however, give young members of the teaching staff far more guarantees than the present "Assistent" status since the special service conditions governing professors are also applicable to assistant professors; in particular, they may not be seconded or transferred without their consent, unless the establishment concerned is dissolved.

2. In order to be appointed, assistant professors must have academic and teaching qualifications as well as special scientific or artistic ability. In general, possession of a doctorate is regarded as evidence of special scientific ability.

The "Habilitation" is no longer an essential condition for obtaining an assistant professor's post. Such posts are open to competition. Competitions must be advertised in good time and the nature and extent of the duties attaching to the posts must be specified.

Assistant professors are proposed by the university bodies and appointed by the Minister. The Minister does not have a choice between 3 nominees as is the case for established staff ("Berufung" procedure).

3. The duties and tasks of an assistant professor depend either on the nature of his post or on the terms of his appointment if it was not based on a competitive examination.

When the teaching and examining duties of assistant professors come to be specified, however, it must be made sure that they are able to obtain the necessary qualifications to become a professor.

Assistant professors take part in the self-administration and reform of higher education. They carry out their tasks on their own responsibility.

b. Professors

Attention will be confined here to the respects in which the status of professors differs from that of assistant professors.

1. They are established civil servants.

They thus have the status of a permanent teacher and are irremovable. They possess the same rights as assistant professors with regard to participation in their establishment's bodies.

2. Professors may concentrate their activities on either teaching or research if they so wish Those whose main activity is teaching must have an opportunity to carry out research. They must be released from their duties at reasonable intervals in order to be able to perform other relevant tasks, including tasks outside the establishment.

Professors whose main activity is research may be required in return to do more teaching at certain times.

These provisions restrict the freedom of professors. At present they may, if they wish, devote themselves entirely to research and refuse to do any teaching. If the Bill is adopted, however, they will be compelled, under Article 41, para. 5, to teach their subject on all courses.

3. The conditions for becoming a professor are not the same as for becoming an assistant professor. The reform proposals provide that, as a rule, no one may be appointed a professor until he has served a probationary period as an assistant professor. It is possible, however, for a person to be appointed a professor without having been an assistant professor provided he has the necessary previous experience (eg he must have worked in a non-university research centre or in industry).

c. Scientific and artistic collaborators ("wissenschaftliche und künstlerische Mitarbeiter")

1. Appointment

To be appointed to such a post a person must usually possess a university degree.

2. The status is the same as that of a civil servant or of a person employed under civil service conditions. Scientific and artistic collaborators may belong to a teaching and research unit, to one of its research laboratories, to an administrative unit under the authority of a higher education establishment or to a central collegiate body.

Their duties consist in providing such services as are necessary for the activities of these bodies.

Doctors and dentists generally act as scientific collaborators of the health services while they are studying for the examination in their speciality.

Scientific collaborators do not usually teach unless they take a post as assistant lecturer.

d. Assistant lecturers ("Lehrbeauftragte")

Posts in this category may be created on a supplementary basis.

The holders teach on their own responsibility. They work as auxiliaries and are paid according to the number of hours they teach.

The posts are outside the civil service and are often assigned to professors or "Mittelbau" teachers in addition to their main work. Foreign teachers may well be appointed to them.

e. Teachers for special tasks ("Lehrkräfte für besondere Aufgaben")

These teach practical subjects for which it is unnecessary to engage a professor or assistant professor.

f. Tutors ("Tutoren")

1. Students or other persons may act as tutors in an auxiliary capacity. The work is paid.

2. Duties: Tutors are responsible for supervising and helping students in their studies. They work under the direction of a professor or assistant professor within a teaching and research unit.

II. Recruitment and appointment

1. The "Habilitation" procedure

The current "Habilitation" procedure is a very rigid one.

"Assistenten" who wish to sit for the "Habilitation" examination must accept a number of obligations which hamper their research work and encroach on their teaching time.

- First, a certain interval must elapse between the doctorate ("Promotion") and the "Habilitation";

- Secondly, a member of the teaching staff has to propose the "Assistent" for the examination;

- Lastly, a member of the teaching staff must have volunteered to direct the "Habilitation" examination.

This procedure, which often lacks impartiality, makes a candidate dependent on his superior.

The "Habilitation" thesis, moreover, is a monograph subject to rather rigid rules and is probably inadequate for the requirements of modern research.

A fairly strong protest movement has therefore arisen in Germany against this highly "Malthusian" method of selection for professorships.

In view of the increasing need for professors and hence the need for new recruitment procedures, the Conference of Vice-Chancellors adopted, on 21 January 1969, a resolution proposing a reform of the "Habilitation".

It is recommended that the "Habilitation" no longer be essential for an appointment to a chair. Qualifications of other kinds, acquired in other professions, could be recognised. If this reform were carried through, it would obviously favour intersectorial mobility.

The main features of the reform

A. The following would be able to apply for admission to the "Habilitation" procedure:

a. Any holder of a doctorate or an equivalent foreign diploma: here there would be definite scope for international mobility.

For this procedure to be initiated none of the above 3 conditions would be necessary, viz waiting period between the doctorate and the "Habilitation", sponsorship by a member of the teaching staff and availability of a teacher to direct the "Habilitation" examination.

b. The work and merits of a "Habilitation" candidate would be assessed by at least 2 examiners according to more flexible criteria than hitherto:

- Suitability for research could be judged in the light of previous work. A very good doctorate thesis ("Dissertation") would be acceptable for the "Habilitation"; participation in group work could also be taken into consideration.

- Ability to teach could be judged in the light of previous university teaching, including teaching done abroad.

The "Habilitation" procedure would last not more than 12 months from the application for admission.

B. The decision to award the "Habilitation"

This decision would be taken solely by members of the teaching staff who had themselves obtained the "Habilitation" or possessed equal qualifications.

The reasons for the decision would be given in writing.

The appropriate body under the university regulations would specify what tasks a holder of the "Habilitation" was competent to perform. There would be 2 possible situations:

a. The holder could be authorised both to teach and to conduct research. This might be part-time work according to the requirements of the research and teaching organisations.

b. The holder's duties could be confined to teaching. He would then have the title of "professor" for as long as he belonged to the university hierarchy concerned.

In conclusion:

The reform would not entail any revolution in recruitment procedure. In its explanatory memorandum, the Conference of Vice-Chancellors emphasised that the "Habilitation" procedure was still a good means of checking whether a candidate was suitable for university teaching or research, but it should no longer be regarded as the only means.

Many rigid aspects of the current procedure would be abolished if this reform were adopted.